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डा॰ रामकरण शर्मा

भूतपूर्व कुलपित, सम्पूर्णानन्द संस्कृतिविश्वविद्यालय, वाराणसी; नयी दिल्ली

डा॰ रामचन्द्र नारायण दाण्डेकर भण्डारकर प्राच्यशोधसंस्थान; पूणे

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पुराणम्——PURĀŅA

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पुराणेतरेषु शास्त्रेषु व्यासः

(Vyāsa in non-Purāņic works)

T

वाराणस्यां सुखासीनं वेदव्यासं तपोनिधिम् । पत्रच्छुर्मुनयोऽभ्येत्य धर्मान् वर्णव्यवस्थितान् ॥१ स पृष्टः स्मृतिमान् स्मृत्वा स्मृतिं वेदार्थगर्भिताम् । उवाचाथ प्रसन्नात्मा मुनयः श्रूयतामिति ॥२ (व्यासस्मृति १. १-२)

II

अवापुस्त्रिदशा व्याप्ति वागीशत्वं बृहस्पतिः। द्वैपायनोऽपि यं ज्ञात्वा वेदव्यासोऽभवन्मुनिः॥ (कृष्णानन्द-आगमवागीश-कृत तन्त्रसार, अ०३)

III

श्रीमत्परब्रह्मसुपूर्णंचित्त-

श्रीव्यासकण्ठप्रसृतां च शिक्षाम्।

एतामभिज्ञः प्रयतः पठेद् यः

सर्वानभीष्टांश्च समश्नुते वै॥

(व्यासशिक्षा ५२५)

It is stated here that while Vyāsa was residing at \ sages approached him about the duties (rites and custom four varṇas. Vyāsa recalled the rules (concerning the d had been originally propounded in the Vedas and asked t to hear those rules from him.

Vyāsa's staying at Vārāṇasī has been stated in more Purāṇa. Kūrma-p. I. 29. 62-34.33 describe Vyāsa's co Vārāṇasī, Jaimini's putting questions to him about freyas, view (which was originally stated by Siva to Devi) al glorious position of Vārāṇasī, Vyāsa's going to curse inl of Vārāṇasī and Vyāsa's residing near Vārāṇasī (स्थितस्तस्यैव

A similar incident of Vyāsa's giving curse to the V kṣetra (verses 19-21) has been described in Matsya 15-42. See Tīrthaprakāśa, pp. 153-154 on these N verses. The story in an elaborated form is found i khanda, ch. 96 where the exact location of Vyāsa's after the curse incident is given in verse 201 (लोलावा स्वयुं तीपूर्वरोधित स्थितो हाबापि). Vyāsa is said to have insta Vyāsesvara linga at Vārāṇasi (Tīrthavivecanakāṇda of Kap. 85-86; see Kāsīkhaṇda 95.71).

II

The author of the Tantrasāra has quoted a passage Svāyambhuva-tantra on the Tantric rite called Sārasva (The aforesaid two lines are from this passage). This rite in worshipping the goddess Vāgiśvarī in a particular way result of this worship a person becomes capable of colliterary works.

The sage Dvaipāyana¹ is said to have arranged the Na result of performing this rite. The Mahābhārata expreclares that the sage was called Vedavyāsa on account of the

The name Dvaipāyana is based on the fact that
was born in a dvipa (island) (Yāmuna-dvipa by
(see Mbh. Adi. p. 63.84; Devi-bhgvata-p. 2.2-37).

arranging the Vedas (विख्यास वेदान् यस्मात् स वेदव्यासस्ततः स्मृतः, Ådi-p. 63,88). Vyāsa's worshipping the goddess Vāgisvari is however not mentioned in the eighteen Mahāpurāṇas.

It is remarkable to note that a few Tantric works mention Vyāsa in connection with various matters. As for example the Śrī-vidyārṇava Tantra mentions Vyāsa in the list of the guru-paramparā of the great Śaṅkarācārya. The Gadyavallarī (a Tantric work the authority of which is accepted in the school of Śaṅkara) also mentions Vyāsa in a similar list. It is to be noted in this connection that the Saṁhitās of Pāñcarātra śāstra also speak of Vyāsa in connection with various matters (vide Introduction to the Pāñcarātra and the Ahirbudhnya-saṁhitā, pp. 45, 47, 48, 146 etc.).

III

It is the last verse of the Vyāsaśikṣā—a work on phonetics. The verse in its first half describes Vyāsa as a person whose mind is engrossed in (filled with) the supreme brahman.

Since Vyāsa has not been mentioned anywhere as the author of a work on phonetics and since the Vyāsasikṣā has not been referred to by the earlier teachers of Vyākaraṇa, Śikṣā, and the like, the present work must be regarded as belonging to a later period. The work seems to have been composed by some teacher (possessing the honorific title Vyāsa) belonging to the Taittiriya school of the Black Yajurveda. It is interesting to note that the Taittiriya Āraṇyaka refers to a statement of Vyāsa Pārāšarya in 1,9.2.

-R. S. Bhattacharya



शिवस्तोत्रम्

विञ्वानर उवाच—

एकं ब्रह्मैवाद्वितीयं समस्तं सत्यं सत्यं नेह नानास्ति किञ्चित्। एको रुद्रो न द्वितीयोऽवतस्थे तस्मादेकं त्वां प्रपद्ये महेशम् ॥१३१ एकः कर्ता त्वं हि सर्वस्य शम्भो नानारूपेष्वेकरूपो ऽस्यरूपः । यद्वत् प्रत्यपस्वकं एकोऽप्यनेक . स्तस्मान नान्यं त्वां विनेशं प्रपद्ये ॥१३२ रज्जौ सर्पः शुक्तिकायां च रूप्यं पूरस्तन्मृगाख्ये मरीचौ । यद्वत् तद्वद् विष्वगेष प्रपञ्चो यस्मिन जाते तं प्रपद्ये महेशम् ॥१३३ तोये शैत्यं दाहकत्वं च वह्नौ तापो भानौ शीतभानौ प्रसादः। पुष्पे गन्धो दुग्धमध्येऽपि सर्विर् यत् तच्छम्भो त्वं ततस्त्वां प्रपद्ये ॥१३४ शब्दं गुह्मास्यश्रवास्त्वं हि जिद्रो रघ्राणस्त्वं व्यङ्घ्रिरायासि दूरात् । व्यक्षः पश्येस्त्वं रसज्ञोऽप्यजिह्नः कस्त्वां सम्यग् वेत्यतस्त्वां प्रपद्ये ॥१३५ नो वेदस्तामीश साक्षाद्धि वेद नो वा विष्णुर्नो विधाताखिलस्य। योगीन्द्रा नेन्द्रमुख्याश्च देवा नो भक्तो वेद त्वामतस्त्वां प्रपद्ये ॥१३६ नो ते गोत्रं नेश जन्मापि नाख्या नो वा रूपं नैव शीलं न देशः। इत्यंभतोऽपीश्वरस्तवं त्रिलोक्याः सर्वान् कामान् पूरयेस्तद् भजे त्वाम्।।१३७ त्वत्तः सर्वं त्वं हि सर्वं स्मरारे त्वं गौरीशस्त्वं च नग्नोऽतिशान्तः। त्वं वे वृद्धस्त्वं युवा त्वं च बाल स्तत्त्वं यत् किं नास्यतस्त्वां नतोऽस्मि ॥१३८ ं (स्कन्दपु० काशीखण्ड १०।१३१-१३८)

NOTES ON THE STOTRA

In ancient times there lived a brahmin Viśvānara by name on the bank of the river Narmadā. After pondering over the merits of the four āśramas he thought it better to enter the householder's stage and married Śuciṣmatī. As no child was born to them for a long time Śuciṣmatī expressed her desire to get a son. With a view to getting a son Viśvānara came to Vārāṇasī and worshipped the Vireśvara linga by practising severe penance for twelve months. On the first day of the thirteenth month a boy of eight years resembling Śiva appeared in the Vireśvara linga. Taking the boy as a form of Śiva Viśvānara uttered this stotra and consequently he got a son through the grace of Śiva (Skandap. Kāśi-khanḍa 10.43-151).

The stotra consisting of eight verses is called Abhilāṣāṣṭaka, a wish-giving ogdoad (10.145, 150).

(Verse 131) It is firmly established that all is brahman which is one and without a second and that there is no difference whatsoever in brahman. Since it is Rudra who is one and without a second, I seek refuge in thee, the great lord.

The verse is evidently based on the following Upanişadic statements: सदेव सोम्य....एकमेवाहि तीयम् (Chāndogya-up. 6.2.1), नेह नानास्ति किचन (Bṛhadāraṇyaka-up. 4.4.19) and एको रहो न हितीयाय तस्यु: (Śvetāśvatara-up. 3. 2). The word eka in Chān. 6.2.1 is explained to mean that brahman is free from generic and intrinsic difference and the word advitīya to mean that brahman is free from extrinsic difference. The word iha in Br.-up. 4.4.19 refers to brahman (see Śankara's bhāṣya). The statement एको रहो न हितीयाय तस्य is found in a few Vedic works (vide Viraśaivendu-śekhara, pp. 36-37)¹; see also Śivagitā 6.38-39 with the comm. by Lakṣminṛsimha. Cp. Kāśi-khaṇḍa 95.57 (एको रहो न हितीयो यतस्तद् ब्रह्म वैकं नेह नानास्ति किञ्चत्).

For an elaborate discussion on Rudra based on the Vedic and Purāṇic statments see the article 'The one Rudra and the Many' in Purāṇa II, pp. 211-224.

The word prapadye suggests the doctrine of prapatti (self-surrender).² At the time of showing intense devotion to the Deity the words prapadye and prapadyate are frequently used in the Upanişads, Gitā and allied works; vide Garbha-up. 4; Mahānārā-yana-up. 4.11; Švetāśvatara-up. 4.21; 6.18; Gitā 15.4.

(132) O Sambhu, thou art the only creator of all. Thou art formless. Thou dost remain undifferentiated in diverse entities, as the sun, though one, becomes (i.e. is seen) many in various sheets of water. Therefore I do not take refuge in a deity other than thee.

The word Sambhu is explained to mean one that brings about pleasure or one from which springs pleasure.'s

The simile of the plurality of the sun (or the moon) as a result of its being reflected in different sheets of water is often found in philosophical as well as in Purānic works.⁴

Śiva is called here अरूप; cp. Kaivalya-up, 6 (अरूपमद्भुतम्) and Śvetāśvatara-up. 3.10 (ततो यद्दतरतर तदरूपम्).

(133) I seek refuge in that Maheśa, perception of whom renders the phenomenal world sublated, as the knowledge of snake, silver and water gets sublated when the rope, mother-of-pearl and the sun-beam are perceived.

 Prapatti or sarayāgati has six aspects as has been stated by the later teachers of Vaisnava and Śaiva schools:

> आनुकूल्यस्य संकल्पः प्रातिकृत्यस्य वर्णनम् । रक्षिष्यतीति विश्वासो गोप्तृत्वे वरणं तथा । आत्मनिक्षेपकार्णण्यं पडविद्या श्ररणारतिः ।।

The Nāradapaŭcarātra reads: प्रपत्तिरानुकूल्यस्य संकल्पोऽप्रति-कुळता। विश्वासो वरणं न्यासः कार्पण्यमिति षड्विषा ॥ (1.17).

- श्रं सुखं भावयति उत्पादयतीति शंभुः (Sāyaṇa); श्रं सुखमस्माद् भवतीति शंभुः सुखहेतुः (Bhaṭṭabhāskara on the Rudrādhyāya). About the incorrectness of the second derivation, see the Vyākhyāsudhā comm. by Bhānuji on Amarakośa 1.1.30.
- See Šivagitā 7.34; Paramārthasāra (by Šeşa) 23; Amṛtabindu or Brahmabindu 12; Mokṣasastra quoted in Śārirakabhāṣya 3.2.18.

Illusory perception is usually illustrated with the help of the above-mentioned phenomena.⁵ The expression *gadvat* suggests *nivrtti* or *bādha* (sublation).⁶

The word prapañca is derived from the root paci (in the sense of vistāra-vacana, spreading out) of the Curādi class (cp. प्रपञ्चो हुँतभेदिवस्तार:, Śankara on Māṇḍūkya-up. 2.35). Some however derive it from the root 'paci vyaktīkaraņe' (to make clear or evident) of the Bhyādi class-

Visvak = sarvatah (everywhere; on all sides); indeclinable visu with the root $a\bar{n}c$). $Naira = N\bar{i}ra$ (water) with the suffix an; $p\bar{n}ra =$ the swelling or rising; stream, flow.

The expression 'तन्म्माख्ये मरीची' requires some explanation. (तन्म्माख्ये = स चासी मृगाख्यश्चिति तस्मिन्). It clearly shows that the particular kind of sunbeam, which gives rise to the illusory perception of water in deserts, is called mrga. This particular sunbeam is

- 5. मृगतुष्णायामुदकं शुक्ती रजतं भुजङ्गमी रज्ज्वाम् । तैमिरिकचन्द्रयुगवद् भ्रान्तं निखिलं जगदूपम् ॥ (Paramarthasara 22); अहो विकल्पितं विश्वमज्ञानान्मयि भासते । रूप्यं शुक्तौ फणी रज्जौ वारि सूर्यकरे यथा ॥ (Aştāvakrasamhitā 2.9); see also Sivagitā 7.25).
- 6. सर्पोदिविकल्पप्रतिषेधेनैव रज्ज्वादिस्वरूपप्रतिपन्तिवत् (Sankara on Māṇḍukya-up. 7); रज्ज्वाद्यविद्याने ज्ञाते सर्पोदिविवतों यथा निवर्तते तथाऽविद्यानभूते प्रत्यगृब्रह्मणि त्वयि ज्ञाते सर्वोऽपि नश्यतीत्यर्थः (Comm. on Paramārthasāra); see also Aṣṭāvakrasamhitā 2.7 and Māṇḍukya-kārika 2.18.
- 7. This shows that in the word mrgatrsnā mrga stands for a particular kind of rays of the sun (and not for a deer) and that trsnā (thirst) has no relevance here, though commentators are found to explain the word as मृगाणा तृष्णास्ति अस्याम्. Thus it appears that the word mrgatrsnā deserves to be explained in a different way, or that it is a corrupt form of some word which has compatibility with the word mrga, meaning a particular kind of rays of the sun. May we suppose that the original word was मृगतिषा (मृगनाम्नी त्रिष्ण a word of the शाकपाधियादि group) and that the word त्रिष्ण in the sense of light became obsolete and it was ignorantly replaced by तृष्णा in later times.

also called marīcikā by adding the suffix ka with the word marīci according to Pānini 5.4.96 or 97, or 5.4.87.8

(134) Thou art like the coolness in water, the burning power in fire, the heat in the sun, the beauty or brilliance in the moon, the fragrance in flower, and clarified butter in milk. Therefore I seek refuge in thee.

The subtlety and omnipresence of that reality the realization of which renders the phenomenal existence sublated is described here. Similar ideas are found in Gitā 7.8-9. The Śivagitā (6.32) gives the example of the pervading of sneha (viscidity) in clarified butter etc.; cp. the Upaniṣadic statement चूत्तीमब पयति निगृढं... (Amṛtabindu-up. 20).

(135) Though thou art bereft of the sense and motor capacities, namely ear, nose, feet, eyes and tongue yet thou art capable of hearing, smelling, seeing, tasting and moving. Since nobody is able to know thee properly I take refuge in thee.

A similar idea is found in Śvetāśvatara-up. 3.19 (अपाणिपादो जवनो महीता). For the incomprehensibility of the nature of God, see Śārīrakabhāṣya 2. 1.6 (को अद्धा वेद....इति चैवंजातीयका).

(136) O Lord, the Vedas fail to know thee directly. Neither Viṣṇu, nor Brahmā, nor yogins, nor gods with their king Indra know thee. Since it is the devotee who knows thee, I take refuge in thee.

The expression साक्षाद् वेद shows that the Vedas describe the Lord in the indirect way i. e. through laksanā.

The phenomenon mirage has been precisely described in Nyāyabhāṣya 1.1.4 and in the comm, on the Amarakośa passage 'मृग्तुच्णा मरीचिका' (1.3.35).

^{9.} See Madhusudana's comment on the line 'अतद्व्यावृत्या यं चिकतमिमधत्ते श्रृतिरिप' (Mahimnahstotra 2). Cp. एवं त्रिविधासु वृत्तिषु यद्यपि मुख्या गौणी च वृत्तिर्वहाणि शब्दस्य न संभवति, जातिगुणिक्रया-रिहत्त्वाद् ब्रह्मणः, तथापि कथंचित्लाक्षणिकी वृत्तिरुत्तिस्मन् संभवत्येव (Rāghavānanda's comm. on Paramārthasāra, 80). For a similar view see Šankara's bhāṣya on Kena-up. 1.2.

The exalted position of the devotees is known from the name भक्तानां परमा गति: of Śiva (Chap. on Śivasahasranāma in Anuśāsana-p. 17.153).¹° Śiva is called varivaskṛta (in the Rudrādhyāya II), which means 'the lover of the devotees'.

(137) Though thou hast no gotra, birth, name, colour (or form), characteristics or place, yet thou art the lord of the three worlds. Since thou dost fulfil all desires, I adore thee.

It is interesting that the Muṇḍaka-up. (1. 1. 6) uses the word gotra while describing the absolute brahman. Śaṅkara explains gotra by anvaya i. e. māla (root). Agotra thus means 'one having no root with which it can get connected'. The birthlessness of Śiva has beed felicitously expressed in the Upaniṣadic passage अजात हर्णेव कश्चित् भीर: प्रतिपश्चते (Śvetāśvatara 4. 21). For Śiva's power of fulfilling desires, see Śvetāśvatara-up. 6. 13 (एको बहुनां यो विवदाति कामान्).

Triloka is explained to mean either the Bhūs, Bhuvar and Svar lokas or the Prithivi, Antarikṣa and Div lokas. Though Iśvara usually means one having lordship or the controller yet the word bears a particular sense in Śaiva school. 11

(138) All comes from thee. O the destroyer of Kāma, thou art the lord (husband) of Gouri. Thou art nacked and self-controlled. Thou art the old man, the youth, and the child. Since anything other than thee has no existence, I bow down to thee.

Some names of Śiva namely Sarvakāra, Sarvātman, Digvāsas, Unmattaveśa etc. (Anuśāsana-p. ch. 17) show the idea expressed in the first half of the verse. The name Smarāri (enemy of Smara, Cupid) is based on the episode of the burning of Cupid which is found in the Purāṇas.

For the idea expressed in the third line, cp. Śvetāśvatara-up. 4.3 (त्वं स्त्री त्वं पुमानसि....) and नमो वृद्धाय च in the Rudrādhyāya. In reality, He is neither female nor male etc. (Svetāśvatara-up. 5.10).

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^{10.} For devotion to Siva, see Siva-p. 7.1,3.29-30.

^{11.} ईश एबाहमत्यर्थं न च मामीशते परे। ददामि च सर्देश्वर्यमीश्वरस्तेन कीत्यंते।। (Kūrma-p. quoted in Trikāṇḍacintāmaṇi comm. on Amarakośa).

GLEANINGS FROM THE SIVAPURĀŅA: II*

By

R. N. DANDEKAR

The Linga

The SP consistently emphasizes one point, namely, that Sinapājā without the linga is utterly futile. Indeed, the linga-worship is said to constitute the very essence of Saiva theology. 1 Siva alone is of the nature of brahman(brahmanūpa), without parts(nişkala), and formless (nirākāra). Therefore, his symbol is linga which is formless. But Siva is also some times visualized as being sakala and sākāra. Therefore, he is also worshipped in the form of bera or anthropomorphic image. Other gods, not being identical with brahman, are not niskala, and hence they are not worshipped in the formless linga-symbol.2 In the case of Siva, the linga is primary while the bera is secondary. A temple of Siva with the bera but without the linga is like a barren piece of land.8 Siva says that, though he himself considers the linga and the bera to be equally sacred, for the devotee, the worship of the linga will prove far more efficacious. The superiority of the linga over the bera is further in dicated by the fact that the former is required to be installed with branava while the latter is installed with the five-syllabled mantra. It has been further pointed out that the bera is to be installed out side the sanctum sanctorum mainly for the purpose of festivals. 5 The lingapūjā is believed to have been instituted ever since the begin ning of the world. Siva, installed and worshipped in the form o linga, bestows worldly pleasures and spiritual emancipation.6

^{*} This paper forms Part II of the paper published in Puran XXVIII, No. 1, pp. 7-31.

^{1.} SP 1. 21. 32 ff.

^{2.} Ibid. 1. 5, 10-14.

^{3.} Ibid, 1. 9. 46.

^{4.} Ibid. 1. 10. 37-38.

^{5.} Ibid. 1. 11. 18.

^{6.} Ibid. 2. 1. 10. 37-38.

Different versions are given about the origin of the linga.7 The one that occurs at the beginning of the SP is as follows. 8 Visnu and Brahmā once got themselves locked up in a serious battle which had originated out of a trivial personal incident. With a view to avoiding the tragic repercussions of that battle, Siva appeared between those two gods in the form of a column of fire. In spite of their strenuous efforts, Visnu and Brahma failed to find the bottom and the top of that column and were accordingly put to shame.9 The column of fire subsequently became the linga symbol of Siva. Siva told Visnu and Brahma that the fiery column which was without bottom or top would become diminutive in size for all people to see and to worship and that, because he had manifested himself on the field of the battle in the form of linga, that place would thenceforth become known as Lingasthana. 10 According to the account given in the Dharmasamhita of the ŚP11, during the ekārnava state before creation, Brahmā approached Śiva-Rudra and beseeched him to create the universe. Siva agreed and entered into the vast ocean in order to prepare himself for the enormous task. However, he did not come out of the ocean for a considerably long time. In the mean time, Brahmā became fretful; he could not wait any longer and therefore brought about his own creation. When, later, Siva-Rudra emerged out of the water, he found that the creation had been already accomplished. He, therefore, cut off his generative organ as it was no longer necessary and threw it down on the earth. Since then the linga became the form in which Siva came to be worshipped. Elsewhere it has been narrated that the sages of the Pine Forest, accusing Siva, who was in disguise, of

The SP (Pañcānana Tarkaratna ed.) gives five different accounts: Jāāna. 2. 3; Vidyesvara. 3; Sanatkumāra. 18; Vāyu. uttara. 27; Dharma 10.

^{8.} SP 1. 5, 27-29; 2. 1. 7.

^{9.} For more details of this episode see the First Part of this paper. The episode reminds one of the yaksa of the Kana Upanisad which the conceited gods were unable properly to recognize and the mystery of which was subsequently unravelled to them by Umā.

SP 1. 6. 18-19. This column of fire is sometimes interpreted as axis mundi, as the symbol of cosmic stability or rta, and is identified with the Skambha of the Skambhasūkta (AV X. 7). It is also directly connected with jyotirlinga.

^{11.} Pañcānana Tarkaratna ed., 49. 82.

having seduced their wives, cursed him, that, as the result of the curse, the generative organ of Siva dropped down, and that Siva, revealing himself to the sages, instructed them to worship his fallen linga. 12 It is also pointed out that the fusion of the symbols of Siva and Sakti, namely, the penis and the vagina, is called linga. 13 Elsewhere, in accordance with its usual style of etymologizing, the SP says that the linga is so called because it makes the lina (or anyakta, that is, Siva) known, 14

There are various forms of linga. The first form is called pranava. 15 It is of two types—the subtle (sūkṣma) pranava which is without parts and the gross (sthūla) pranava which is constituted of five parts or akṣaras. The worship of these two forms of the Linga is called tapas, and it is believed to lead to mokṣa. 16 The Lingas derived from Puruṣa and Prakṛti are, indeed, innumerable, and Siva alone is said to be able to describe them adequately. The lingas made of earth are of five types, namely, svayanbhū, biradu, pratiṣṭhita, cara, and guru.

Gladdened by the austerities of the gods and the sages, Siva, in the form of $n\bar{a}da$, becomes a seed within the interior of the earth. In course of time, he breaks up the earth and, like a sprout, manifests himself outside. He is thus born of and by himself, and, therefore, his linga is known as self-born or svayambhā.¹⁷ When one draws the figure of Siva's phallus on a plate of gold or silver, or on the ground, or on an altar, recting the pure pranava-mantra and with the proper rites of installation and invocation, it is bindunādamaya linga. It is actually conceived in one's mind (bhāvanāmaya), but it is duly sanctioned by Siva. For, whenever a person sincerely visualizes Siva, Siva presents himself before him with his boons.¹⁸

- 12. SP 4. 12, 1-54.
- 13. Ibid. 1. 16. 107.
- Ibid. 1. 16. 106: lina+gam: linārthagamakam cihnuzē lārigam ity ablidhiyaie. Also: līnam artham hi purusam sivazz gamayatīty.daḥ (1. 16. 107).
- A frequently recurring theme in the SP consists in establishing close association between the lings and pranava or omkāra, and between the lings and the five-syllabled mantra.
- 16. SP 1. 18. 27-29.
- 17. Ibid. 1. 18. 32-33.
- 18. Ibid. 1. 18. 35-37.

The third type of linga is the formally installed (pratisthita) linga. The pratistita linga is either paurusa, that is to say, installed by the gods or the sages for the sake of the realization of the soul; or it is prākṛta, that is to say, fashioned by artisans and installed by great Brahmanas or kings, 19 According to the SP, whatever is exalted and permanent is paurusa, while whatever is weak and transitory is prākrta. The Purāņa then goes on to mention various objects belonging to the paurusa and the prākrta categories. The cara (mobile) linga is visualized in the different human limbs, in the three bodily regions like hips etc., namely, penis, navel, tongue, tip of the nose, and sikhā or tust of the hair on the crown of the head.20 Apart from the caralingas belonging to this adhyatmika class, there are also caralingas made of physical materials. Among these latter, the rasalinga is said to be the foremost. It secures the fulfilment of all the wishes of the Brahmanas. The banalinga, the svarnalinga, and the silālinga prove auspicious and efficacious respectively in the case of the Kşatriyas, the Vaisyas and the Sūdras. 21 The SP further says that for women, particularly those whose husbands are alive, the lingas made of earth are considered to be specially sacred; the Purana recommends crystal lingus for the widows who are still active in life (pravṛtta), and rasalingas for such widows as have renounced life (nivrtta). 22

The fifth type of $bh\bar{u}vik\bar{a}ra\ linga$, namely, the gurulinga, is the body of the preceptor (guru) itself. 23 The SP explains the guru, in its usual etymological fashion, as denoting one who wards off (rundhe) the guras, that is, one who is beyond the three guras. 24 The guru enlightens his disciple on the true nature of Siva. The service $(fufr\bar{u}_f\bar{a})$ of the guru constitutes the worship of the gurulinga. $fufr\bar{u}_f\bar{a}$ implies doing, by means of the body, mind and speech, whatever one is told by one's preceptor to do, irrespective of whether it is possible for one to do it or not and without any consideration for one's life or possessions. A disciple (fifya) is defined as one

^{19.} SP 1. 18. 39-42.

^{20.} Ibid. 1. 18. 44.

^{21.} Ibid. 1. 18. 47-49.

^{22.} Ibid. 1. 18. 51-52.

^{23.} Ibid. 1, 18, 46.

Ibid. 1,18. 83-85: gunān(gu) rundhe(ru) iti proktah gurusabdasya vigrahah; savikārān rājasādīn gunān rundhe vyapohati.

who is worthy of being instructed and directed. 25 Verily, a disciple is like a son to the preceptor. The preceptor discharges by means of his penis in the form of the tongue the semen in the form of mantra into the vagina in the form of the ear and thereby procreates a mantraputra (who is to be distinguished from the aurasaputra) in the form of the disciple. The father or the physical begetter drowns, as it were, his son in the ocean of worldly existence, while the preceptor or the spiritual begetter helps him to cross over that ocean. 26 The SP says that every limb of the guru, from the toe to the crown of the head, is a linga and accordingly prescribes various ways of worshipping the guru. It emphasizes the point that the worship of the guru is tantamount to the worship of the supreme lord Siva. 27

It seems to have been suggested that the five types of the $bh\bar{u}vik\bar{a}\tau a$ linga mentioned above correspond with the five constituents of praņava ($omk\bar{a}\tau a$). Praņava is dhvanilinga. The syllable a in praņava corresponds with the gurulinga; the syllable u with the caralinga, the makāra with the pratisthitalinga; the bindu with the bindulinga; and the nāda with the svayambhūlinga. But there appears to be some inconsistency in this context. The SP seems to regard the praṇavalinga as an entity distinct from the five bhūvikāra lingas, for, it speaks of the worship of six lingas, that is, presumably of the praṇavalinga or the dhvanilinga and the five bhūvikāra lingas.

^{25.} SP 1. 18. 87-88.

^{26. \$}P 1. 18. 90-92. One is reminded here of the story told about Alexander the Great (History of the Early Kings of Persia, 1832: David Shee's English translation of Mir Khwand's original book). Alexander was once asked: Between your father Philipp and your teacher Aristotle, whom do you consider to be more venerable? Without a moment's hesitation, Alexander replied: 'Of course, my teacher Aristotle. From my father I have obtained but a perishabie existence; from my teacher I shall obtain life eternal. My father has brought me down from the heaven to the earth; Aristotle will lead me from the earth to the heaven'. Also cf. Manusmṛti 2. 147-48 where the parents are said to be responsible only for a person's biological birth (sambhūti) while the preceptor is credited with endowing him with social-cultural identity (fāti).

SP 1. 18. 95.

^{28.} Ibid. 1, 16, 113-14.

In another context, the SP speaks of two varieties of the linga—stationary ($sth\bar{a}vara$) and mobile (jangama). Trees, hedges, etc., represent the $sth\bar{a}vara$ linga, while worms, insects, etc., represent the jangama linga. Service ($fufr\bar{a}g\bar{a}$) is recommended in the worship of the $sth\bar{a}vara$ linga and propitiation (tarpana) in that of the jangama linga. In still another context, the SP says that a devotee of Siva should always have recourse to Sivalinga,, and further adds that one becomes Sthānu or Siva by resorting to the stationary ($sth\bar{a}nu$) linga, while by worshipping the mobile linga one becomes liberated only by stages. So

However, it is the parthiva or earthen Sivalinga which is regarded as the most exalted among the lingas.81 The linga made of gems was regarded as the best in the Krtayuga; the one made of gold in the Tretavuga; the one made of mercury in the Dvaparayuga; and the one made of clay in the Kaliyuga. Among the eight forms (mūrtis) of Šiva³² the earthen one is far superior to the others. Just as Siva is the most supreme among all the gods, so too is the parthiva linga the most supreme among all the lingas. The SP continues in a poetic vein to assert the excellence of the pārthiva Šivalinga.23 Naturally enough, it also glorifies its worship. It is recommended that an auspicious altar should be prepared for the parthiva linga and that, after its ceremonial installation upon the altar, the linga should be worshipped regularly at the three junctures of the day with the pañcasūtra rite. As for the pārthiva linga itself, it should be so made that it would look beautiful. It should be made as a single whole (akhanda) and not by joining parts (vikhanda). But, later, this general rule seems to have been amended. It is pointed out that, while the mobile linga is to be a single whole, the stationary one is to consist of two parts. The vedikā (pedestal) is the Mahāmāyā and the linga itself is Śiva:

^{29.} ŚP 1. 11. 20-21.

Ibid. 1. 18. 159-60. Obviously, a pun on the word sthāņu is intended here. Similarly, mobility suggests progress by stages.

^{31.} Ibid. 1. 19. 4.

^{32.} See Part One of this paper.

^{33.} SP 1. 19. 7-15.

therefore, in the case of a stationary linga, the two-part construction is regarded as the best. 34

The SP sets forth a detailed procedure for the preparation and the worship of the parthiva linga. 85 One should take bath, go through the daily rites, apply bhasma, wear rudrāksa, and, meditating upon Siva, get ready for the worship of the linga. worship should be performed on the bank of a river or by the side of a lake or on the top of a mountain or in a forest or in a temple of Siva. The devotee should bring over clay from a pure clean place for the fashioning of the linga. A Brāhmaņa should use white clay, a Kşatriya red clay, a Vaisya yellow clay, and a Śūdra black clay. If the specifical kind of clay is not available, one may use whatever kind of clay is available. The clay should be washed clean by means of water and kneaded slowly. The linga should then be fashioned out of it according to the procedure laid down in the Veda. This reference to the Vedic procedure is evidently the result of the brahmanization of the Purāna. Indeed, ŚP 1.20 claims to be describing the worship of the parthiva linga by Vedic devotees in accordance with the Vedic rites. Vedic mantras (mostly from the Vājasaneyi-Samhitā) are prescribed to accompany the various details of the worship. 36 For instance, the mantra, namah sinaya (VS 16.41), is to be recited at the sprinkling of water upon the material to be used for worship; namah kapardine (VS 16.29) at the offering of the incense; bhūr asi (VS 13.18) at the sanctifying of the place of worship; āpo 'sman (VS 4.2) at the sanctifying of water; namas te rudra (VS 16.1) at the rite of phāṭikā-bandha; namo nīlagrīvāya (VS 16.28) at the installation of the linga; the rudragāyatrī (KS 17.32) at the arghya; the tryambaka-mantra (VS 3.60) at the sipping of water; and devā gātu vidah (TB 3.7.4.1) at the visarjana.87

^{34.} SP 1. 19. 28-37.

^{35.} Ibid. 1. 20. 2-9.

^{36.} Ibid. 1. 20. 11-41.

^{37.} As many as fifty mantras are mentioned in this context. Out of these, one is derived from the Kāṭhaka-Saṃhitā (KS), one from the Maitrāyaṇī-Saṃhitā (MS), one from the Atharvaveda, one from the Taittirīya-Brāhmana (TB), and one from the Taittirīya-Āraṇyaka (TA); one mantra is not traceable; the remaining ones are from the VS.

The SP also gives a shorter version of the Vedic $p\bar{a}rthiva$ -linga $p\bar{n}j\bar{a}$. 38 According to it, the clay is to be brought over with the mantra, sadyo- $j\bar{a}to$ (VS 29.36), the sprinkling of water is to be done with $v\bar{a}madv\bar{a}ya$ (TA 10.44.1), the linga is to be fashioned with the aghoramantra (VS 16.2), the invocation is to be made with tat purus $\bar{a}ya$ (KS 17.32; MS 2.9.3), and the linga is to be fixed upon the $vedik\bar{a}$ with the $it\bar{a}namantra$ (VS 27.35). All other rites too are to be considerably abbreviated.

Apart from these Vedic modes of worship, the SP recommends what it calls the common mode of worship. ³⁸a This latter consists mainly of the muttering of the names of Siva instead of the reciting of the Vedic mantras mentioned above. The eight rites, namely, the bringing over of clay, the kneading of clay, the installation, the invocation, the ablution, the worship, the asking for pardon, and the disposal are to be performed respectively with the eight names of Siva, namely, Hara, Maheśvara, Śambhu, Śūlapāṇi, Pinākadhṛt, Śiva, Paśupati, and Mahādeva, each name in the dative case being preceded by om and followed by namaḥ. The common mode of worship also includes meditating on Śiva, singing hymns in his praise, murmuring the five-syllabled mantra, offering flowers and rice-grains making the full-throated sound³⁰, etc.

The number of the pārthiva lingas to be worshipped vary in accordance with the varying desires of the devotee. The shape of the linga is to be the same in all the cases, but the other details of worship, such as invocation, installation, etc., are different. The recommended numbers of the lingas, which range from one to one crore, seem to be quite arbitrary. It is pointed out that one who prepares and worships one crore of Sivalingas becomes Siva himself. 40 The pārthiva linga is of three types—excellent (uttama), middling (madhyama), and low or mean (nica)—depending upon its

^{38.} SP 1. 20. 39-44.

³⁸a. Ibid., 1. 20, 45.

^{39.} This is galarava. Dakşa's sacrifice, while being destroyed by the Sivaganas, assumed the form a goat; Dakşa himself assumed the form of a deer and escaped. A devotee who imitates the sound of a terror-stricken goat(galarava) in front of the liviga becomes dear to Siva.

^{40.} SP 1, 21, 5-21.

size. A linga which is four angulas in height and is fixed upon a charming $vedik\bar{a}$ is excellent; one of half this size is middling; and one of half the size of the middling is low. While the SP usually loses no opportunity to emphasize the Vedic origin and glorification of the $lingap\bar{n}j\bar{a}$, s it also, at the same time, stoutly proclaims the right of persons belonging to all castes and sub-castes, and also of women, to worship the Sivalinga. It, however, hastens to add that only the twice-born may perform the worship according to the Vedic procedure but not the others. Seven gods and goddesses are exhorted to worship the Sivalinga. The SP narrates that Viṣṇu and Brahmā asked Viṣvakarman to fashion different kinds of Sivalingas and give them over to different gods and goddesses. Accordingly, Indra was given a linga made of padmaraga, Kubera one made of gold, Dharma one of yellow stone, Lakṣmi one of crystal, etc. 44

In another context, the SP speaks of two kinds of lingas—the exterior $(b\bar{a}hya)$ linga and the interior $(\bar{a}hhyantara)$ linga. The $b\bar{a}hya$ linga is gross while the $\bar{a}bhyantara$ linga is subtle. It is said that whoever is unable to visualize and meditate upon the interior subtle linga should worship the exterior gross linga. Of course, the essential thing is to perceive Siva, whether in the form of the interior linga or of the exterior linga, as inhering the whole universe. Indeed the SP asserts that persons who have realised Brahman through pure knowledge are not required to perform any kind of $p\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ or ritual. 45

Various details are given regarding the actual installation of the $\int ivalinga.^{46}$ The linga should be installed, at some favourable auspicious time, at a holy place where daily worship would be facilitated. In the case of a mobile linga, the subtle one is recommended; and in the case of a stationary one, the gross one is recommended. The seat (pifha) should be made of the same material as the linga. It may be circular or square or triangular in shape.

^{41.} ŚP 1. 21. 32.

^{42.} Ibid. 1. 21. 39-40.

^{43.} Ibid. 1. 21. 41-42.

^{44.} Ibid. 2. 1. 12. 27-37.

^{45.} Ibid. 2. 1. 12. 48-55.

^{46.} Ibid. 1., 11. 2-18.

The linga should be worshipped with the mantras beginning with sadyo (VS 29.36), and oblations should be offered into the fire. The linga is to be welded to the pitha, and the embodied image also is to be fixed thereto. It is also enjoined that the embodied image should be installed outside with the five-syllabled mantra for the purpose of the festivals. In different kinds of temples, spaces of different areas are said to be specially sacred. ⁴⁷ Incidentally, it is interesting to note that some authorities have recommended the worship of the linga upon the thumb, etc. ⁴⁸ The SP also lays down that, if a devotee does not have a linga of his own, he may use one belonging to another. ⁴⁹

A distinction has been made in the SP between the pravrtta devotees and the nivrtta devotees, that is, between those who actively go through the various rites of worship and those who have renounced such rites and concentrate only on meditation. To It has, for instance, been prescribed that a pravrtta devotee should perform the entire worship in a vessel (pātra). At the conclusion of the abhiseka, he should offer cooked fāli rice as naivedya. After the worship, he should deposit the linga in a casket and keep that casket in some isolated place within the house. For a nivrtta devotee, the subtle linga is recommended. In his case, the worship consists of besmearing himself with the sacred ashes. After the worship, the linga is to be held by means of the head.

As pointed out above, Śiva is often represented in the form of the united yoni (vagina) and linga (penis). These two latter are correlated with the two constituents of prayava, namely, the bindu and the $n\bar{a}da$. The whole universe consisting of the movable and the immovable is of the nature of the bindu and the $n\bar{a}da$. The bindu is identified with Śakti and the $n\bar{a}da$ with Śiva. Thus, the whole universe is believed to have been dominated and supported by Śiva and Śakti. When the bindu and the $n\bar{a}da$, that is, Śakti and Śiva, are united, there occurs the birth of the universe. The Siva-

^{47.} SP 1. 11. 55-56.

Ibid. 1.11.34. The thumb was regarded as a phallic emblem even in Vedic ritual, and was associated with the fertility god Visnu. See: Dandekar, "Visnu in the Veda", Vedic Mythological Tracts, pp. 68-90.

^{9.} SP 1. 18, 50.

^{0.} Ibid. 1, 18, 53-57.

linga by itself is also said to represent the unification of the bindu and the nada or Sakti and Siva. The great goddess forms the pedestal for the linga, while the linga is Siva himself. 51 The Sivalinga is thus the cause of the birth of the universe. Therefore, through a queer logical extension, the SP lays down that, in order to ward off future births, a person should worship the Sivalinga. Further, according to the SP, it is the linga itself into which the whole universe ultimately merges. The Purāna connects the word linga etymologically with the word layana meaning absorption. 52 Elsewhere, it is pointed out that Sakti or the bindu is the mother and Siva or the nada is the father. The worship of the Sivalinga is accordingly equivalent to the worship of one's parents and conduces to great bliss,58 However, it is generally stated that the worship of the Sivalinga (as also of the other gods) leads to the warding off of all kinds of affliction and hindrance (badha)-of the ādhyātmika bādhā consisting of bodily ailment, of the ādhibhautika bādhā consisting of the visitation by the pisācas, ill omens, etc., and of the ādhidaivika bādhā consisting of epidemics, lightning, etc. 54

Pranava

It will have become clear from what has been said above that, according to the SP, the Sivalinga and prayava are closely related to each other. So In the episode of the fiery column, which, as pointed out above, later came to be worshipped as Sivalinga, Visqu and Brahmā showed themselves as having been under great delusion. The delusion was the result of their not having meditated upon Siva properly. In the absence of the true knowledge of Siva, they had imbibed the false pride of themselves being Maheśa. Siva, therefore, imparted to them the omkāra-mantra by repeating which their false pride was to have been quelled and they were to have acquired true knowledge of him. So Expounding the impor-

^{51.} ŚP 2.1.10.38.

^{52.} Ibid. 2. 1. 10. 38.

^{53.} Ibid. 1. 16. 86-92.

^{54.} Ibid. 1. 18. 100-105.

^{55.} For the correspondence between the five bhāvikāra lingas on the one hand and the five phonetic elements of prayava on the other, see above.

^{56.} SP 1. 10. 14-15.

tance of the omkāra-mantra, Śiva said : "The omkāra-mantra is generated from my mouth. It is the signifier and I am the signified. Verily, it is identical with me. Repeating the omkāra-mantra, therefore, amounts to meditating upon me. First, the phonetic element a emerged from the northern mouth of Siva, then the phonetic element u from the western mouth, then m from the southern mouth; the bindu from the eastern mouth, and the nāda from the middle mouth. Though they had come out of Siva's five mouths separately, the five phonetic elements were ultimately united to form one single syllable om. The entire universe made up of names (nāma) and forms (rūpa) is pervaded by the omkāramantra. Indeed, this mantra signifies both Siva and Sakti, Again, it was from the omkāra-mantra that the five-syllabled mantra, namah Sivaya, was born. The five syllables beginning with na correspond with the five phonetic elements beginning with a. Like the omkāramantra, the pañcākṣara mantra also is indicative of all knowledge and existence. The five matrkas are born from the five-syllabled mantra. In fact, the omkāra, through the five-syllabled mantra, is the ultimate source of the firomantra and the gayatrimantra, indeed of the entire complex of the Veda and of the crores of mantras. Therefore, whatever is achieved severally by these latter can be achieved concurrently by the single omkāra-mantra. The SP describes how Visnu and Brahma received the omkara-mantra, together with the relevant vantra and tantra, as taught by Siva. The proper time and manner of repeating the mantra are also explained by Siva who concludes by pointing out specifically that the omkāra is associated with his linga-form while the pañcākṣara mantra is associated with his embodied form (bera),57

Elsewhere, the SP narrates that, when Visnu and Brahmā were unable to discover the bottom and the top respectively of the fiery column (which was in reality the Sivalinga), they bowed down before it with their pride fully curbed. They worshipped Siva for a hundred autumns and prayed to him that he reveal to them his true form. 58 Siva, with his natural compassion, relented. Thereupon there arose the sound om-quite distinct and prolated (pluta). Brahma stood perplexed, but Visnu perceived the first phonetic

^{57.} SP 1. 10. 15-39.

^{58.} Ibid. 2. 1. 7. 64-69.

element a towards the southern side of the linga, u towards the northern side, m in the middle, and the entire mystical sound om at the end. A looked like the orb of the sun, u like the blazing fire, and m like the full moon. Above the fiery column or the Sivalinga, Vișnu saw the supreme Brahman itself. While Vișnu stood contemplating upon the source and nature of that Being, which was devoid of beginning, end, and middle, there appeared before him a seer who revealed to him the most essential reality embodied in the sabdabrahman, that is pranava. It is Siva, who cannot be comprehended by means of speech or mind⁵⁰ but who can be adequately expressed through the single mystical syllable om. The SP then goes on to point out, rather in a mystic vein, that a is the source of Brahmā, u of Vișnu, and m of Nilalohita (Rudra); that a represents the creator, u the enchanter, and m the one who blesses; and that, when a which is the bija is deposited in u which is the yoni, it grows on all sides and ultimately becomes the golden egg 60 out of which there emerges, in course of time, the entire universe. 61 The SP thus invests pranava with cosmological significance.

In this very context, the SP further adds that Siva revealed himself before Viṣṇu and Brahmā in the form of labda-brahman with the different letters as his limbs. The letter a was his head, 62 \bar{a} his forehead, i his right eye, i his left eye⁶³, u his right ear, \bar{a} his left ear, r his right cheek, $_{\overline{a}k}$ his left cheek, $_{\overline{a}k}$ and $_{\overline{a}k}$ his nostrils e his upper lip, ai his lower lip, o and au the two rows of his teeth, ana $(anusv\bar{a}ra)$ and as (visarga) his two palates, the five letters beginning with k^{65} his five right hands, the five letters beginning with t and the five letters beginning with t his right side, t his abdomen, t his right side,

- Cf. the upanisadic phrase, yato vāco nivartante aprāpya manasā saha.
- 60. For the splitting up of the golden egg (hiranyagarbha) and the emergence of ka, see Part One of this paper.
- 61. \$P 2.1.8. 1-22.
- 62. Actually, Siva is paficavaktra.
- 63. Actually Siva is trinstra.
- 64. The vowel of is not recognised by Sanskrit grammar.
- That is, the five consonants in the ka-varga. So too, ca-varga, ta-varga, etc.
- 66. The reference to ten hands and ten legs is strange.

b his left side, bh his shoulder, m his heart, the seven letters beginning with y and ending with set his seven primary fluids or secretions (dhātus), h his navel, and kses his nose. 69

It may be incidentally pointed out that, in another context. the SP says that the repetition of the $omk\bar{a}ra$ -mantra a thousand times each at the morning and the evening twilights purifies the mind and conduces to the attainment of the abode of Siva. 70 It adds that, at the time of samādhi, the repetition of pranava has to be mental. However, the muttering of om inaudibly may be practised at all times. The Purāņa then goes on to lay down rules regarding the repetition of the five-syllabled mantra. A Brāhmana should prefix om to the five-syllabled mantra in order to render it specially efficacious. 71 Elsewhere, the SP mentions various mantras related to Siva and the fruits obtained through the repetition of those mantras. It mentions, for instance, the mantra beginning with om, which consists of five kalās and thirty-eight auspicious letters. This mantra increases intelligence and effectively helps the accomplishment of sacred rites. Then there are mentioned: the mantra in the Gayatri metre with twenty-four syllables and four kalās, which is conducive to control over others: the fivefold mantra with thirty syllables and eight kalās., which is employed in imprecatory rites (abhicara); the Yajurveda-mantra with twenty-five syllables and eight kalās, which is employed in conciliatory rites (śānti); and the mantra with sixty-one syllables and thirteen kalās which presages origin, growth, and destruction. 72 The SP specifically states that Visnu acquired the five mantras, namely, the mrtyumjaya mantra, the five-syllabled mantra, the cintāmaņi mantra, the daksināmūrti mantra, and tat tvam asi which is the māhāvākya of Śiva, and practised jaba of those mantras.

^{67.} The four semivowels and three sibilants.

^{68.} It may be noted that the consonant wis not mentioned, while the conjunct consonant ks is mentioned.

^{69.} ŚP 2.1.8. 32-39.

^{70.} Ibid. 1.11.37.

^{71.} Ibid. 1.11. 38-40.

^{72.} Ibid. 2.1.8. 42-49. These mantras have not been distinctly specified.

Now to revert to pranava. Pranava is said to be of two types -subtle (sūkṣma) and gross (sthūla). The sūkṣma praṇava is constituted of one single sound in which the five phonetic elements are not differentiated; in the sthula pranava these five phonetic elements become clearly manifest. The subtle branava is intended for the liberated living being (jivanmukta). The liberated living being continues to realise the ultimate reality through the mantra until the dissolution of his physical body. When the body disintegrates completely, he enters into Siva. Even a person who merely repeats the mantra can attain yogic communion with Siva. The sūksma pranava, again, is of two kinds-short (hrasva) and long (dirgha). The long subtle pranava arises in the heart of a Yogin in the form of a, u, m, the bindu, and the nada, and is endowed with all the digits of the sound-time. The short subtle pranava is constituted of the sound m which represents the three principles, namely, Siva, Sakti, and their union. It destroys all sins. The five cosmic elements-earth, water, fire, wind and ether-and the corresponding five tanmatras-smell, taste, form, touch, and sound-basically make up the mundane existece. Those who are interested in the continuance of the mundane existence are called pravrttas and those who are averse to it are called nivitias. The SP says that the short subtle pravava is intended for the pravrttas and the long subtle pranava for the nivrttas.

In this very context, the SP further lays down that pranava is to be uttered at the beginning of each of the vyāhṛtis, ⁷⁴ of the other mantras, and of the study of the Veda, as also at the two twilights. The Purāṇa also points out that each successive repetition of praṇava nine crores of times renders a devotee pure and enables him successively to win over the five cosmic elements, namely, earth, water, etc., and the five tanmātras. A devotee, who completes the japa of one hundred and eight crores of praṇava, becomes fully enlightened and masters the tudhayoga. ⁷⁵ He verily becomes jīvanmukta. Perpetually meditating upon Šiva in the form of praṇava, one surely becomes Śiva himself. ⁷⁶ The Purāṇa then

^{73.} SP 1.17. 8 ff.

^{74.} vyāhṛtis are the seven mystic utterances—bhāh, bhuvah, svah, mahaḥ, janah, tapaḥ, and satyam.

^{75.} SP 1.17. 12-23.

^{76.} Ibid. 1.17. 24-25.

gives a few details about the manner in which the japa of pranava is to be performed. It also speaks of the three kinds of Sivayogins, namely, kriyāgogin, tapoyogin, and japayogin. The kriyāyogin engages himself in sacred rites and worship; the tapoyogin lives an austere life: and the japa yogin always performs japa. "

Curiously enough, at this stage, the $\hat{S}P$ reverts to the concept of sthila pravava which it now interprets rather differently. It says that the five-syllabled mantra (namah śivāya), with om prefixed to it, constitutes the sthūla pravava. It implies the five principles. One has to be properly initiated for undertaking the practices of the japa of this mantra and has also to observe certain rules regarding time, place, and personal conduct. 78

In accordance with its usual practice, the SP emphasizes the importance of pranava by giving fanciful etymologies of the word $pranava.^{19}$ Pra stands for prakrti or the world (samsāra) which has evolved from prakrti; nava stands for nāvām varam, that is, excellent among the boats; pranava thus represents an excellent boat to cross over the ocean of samsāra. Or pranava signifies that there is no (na) prapaāca or involvement in worldly life (pra) for you (vah) if you practise the pranava-jaha. Or pranava is so called because it preeminently (praharsana) leads (na-nayet) you (vah) to salvation, or because it preeminently (praharsana) conduces to new (nava), that is pure divine knowledge.

^{77.} ŚP 1.17. 27-30.

^{78.} Ibid. 1.17. 33-42.

^{79.} Ibid 1.17, 4-8.

^{80.} According to \$P Kailāsa 3.11, the word praņava is to be connected with the word prāṇa; it is thus made to signify life-breath: prāṇah praṇava voāyam tasmāt praṇava ritlah. \$P Kailāsa 10.119-20 says that the sound om is derived from the mantra, so'ham, after the sakāra and the hakāra have been deleted. The omkāra thus implies the identity of the Brahman and the Ātman. The \$P frequently emphasizes the identity of \$\mathbf{Siva}\$ vā praṇavo hyṣta praṇavo vā fivah smṛtah—\$P Kailāsa 3.6; \$\mathbf{Siva}\$ vā praṇavo hyṣta praṇavō vā fivah smṛtah—\$P Kailāsa 3.6; \$\mathbf{Siva}\$ says: praṇavārthapartjānameva jānam madātmakam—\$P Kailāsa 3.2 It is suggested that in the graphic representation of praṇava, namely, \$\mathbf{S}\$, the first part signifies the bow, the second part signifies the arrow, and the third part signifies the target. The bow of praṇava

Style

A striking feature of the style of the SP, which is, indeed, quite understandable, is the attempt to glorify Siva in place and out of place. One often comes across such phrases as fivam smrtv3, samsmṛtya manasā śivam, śivecchayā, śivecchāpreritah, śambhuprasādāt, etc., which are not always necessarily pertinent to the context, freely interspersed in the text. 81 The will of Siva is said to prevail everywhere. Verily, the whole world is dependent on his will.82 Siva's will is the same as his illusive power (māyā) which is weighty and which deludes all the worlds. It is also called destiny (prārabdha); indeed, it is known by many names. 88 Srutis and Smrtis are said to rule that, when Rudra is wrathful, there cannot be any happiness in the world.88a

Still more striking, however, is the avidity with which the Purana seeks to establish Siva's as well as its own Vedic character. This is of course palpaby unwarranted and is no doubt the result of the tendency deliberately to brahmanize the Süta-tradition. For instance, Siva is said to have been profusely eulogised in the Veda and the sāstra.84 It is, indeed, he who is credited with having given the Vedas to Visnu in the form of his outbreath, at the beginning of the Kalpa. 85 Siva says that he is Brahman as well as Atman.86 He also says that he is the sacrifice, the soul of the sacrifice. 87 Further, Siva is said to be the entity indicated by tat in the upanisadic tat tram asi which, the Purana claims, is the mahīvākya of Hara.⁸⁸ The *Purāņa* also describes Śiva by means

hits the target of the true knowledge of the ultimate reality. Cf. pranavo dhanuh saro hyātmā brahma tallaksyamucyate—Vāyu P. 20.5. On account of his identity with praņava, Šiva also is said to be bow-shaped (Skanda P.

^{81.} See Part I of this paper.

^{82.} SP 2.1.2.40.

^{83.} Ibid. 2.3.2. 15-16.

⁸³a. Ibid. 2.2.1.36.

^{84.} Ibid. 2.3.22.55 (v. l. loke for fastre).

^{85.} Ibid. 2.1.9.5; 2.3.28.8.

Ibid. 1.9.37. 86.

^{87.} Ibid. 2.2.26.47; 2.2.29, 10-12.

^{88.} Ibid. 2.3.25.5; 2.1.8.49,

of negations in the right neti neti fashion of the Upanisads.89 At one place Sati is represented as telling Visnu that the Srutis speak of Siva as being both saguna and nirguna. 90 Vișnu on his part tells Nārada that all the Vedas unanimously declare the worship of Siva to be the sole means of sublating the samsāra, 91 According to the SP, Siva can be properly comprehended only by those who have mastered the Veda and the Vedanta. 92 Daksa praises Siva as the supreme being whose glory can be known only through the Vedas. 98 Incidentally, Umā too is praised by the gods as the chant of the Samaveda, as the blending knot (granthi) of the Yajurveda, as the invocation of the Rgveda, and as the measure (mātrā) of the Atharvaveda.94

The SP often refers to the Veda as its ultimate source and authority. For instance it strongly recommends the linga-pñjā which, it claims, has been highly glorified by the four Vedas. 15 Indeed, in its enthusiasm for claiming Vedic sanction for its teachings, the SP goes to the absurd extent of asserting that, after having carefully considered the essence of all the Upanisads, this is what has been conclusively determined, namely, that the tripundra 6 conduces to the highest good. 97 In another context, Visnu recommends to Nārada the japa of the six-syllabled mantra (om namah Sivaya), which, he says, is taught in all the Srutis. 88 Similarly, the ŚP characterises its chapter dealing with the omkāra and the pañcākṣara mantra as fully conforming to the Veda and declares

^{89.} SP 2.2.15. 61-62.

^{90.} Ibid. 2.2.29.17.

^{91.} Ibid. 2.1.4.63.

^{92.} Ibid. 2.2.43.7.

^{93.} Ibid. 2,2,42,36,45.

Ibid. 2.3.3.35. The significance of granthi and mātrā is not 94. quite clear.

ŚP 1.21.32: na lingārādhanād anyat punyam vedacatustaye. 95.

See Part I of this paper. 96.

SP 1.24.73. 97.

^{98.} Ibid. 2.1.4.65.

that one who reads it becomes a Vipra endowed with the true knowledge of Siva. 99

In full conformity with this attitude, the SP prescribes the employment of Vedic mantras in connection with the various rites in the $linga-p\bar{n}j\bar{x}$. 100 In fact, Vedic mantras are prescribed to be employed at many other religious rites. 101 Again, when the gods, the siddhas, and the sages went to \dot{S} iva to inform him of the misery caused to them by the demon Täraka, they are said to have first propitiated him with hymns from the Vedas and the $Upanisads.^{102}$

It is also noteworthy that the SP shows, in various ways, great concern for what it calls $vedaniti.^{103}$ For instance, Brahmā refers to Śiva as the upholder of Vedic conventions. ¹⁰⁴ In another context, Śiva explains to Nandin the nature of the Veda and warns him against maligning it. ¹⁰⁵ Indeed, on one occasion, Śiva himself laments his having transgressed the bounds of the Srutis. ¹⁰⁸ Elsewhere, Viṣṇu is represented as rebuking Brahmā for regarding Śiva as his son by pointing out to him that such a belief was not consistent with the teaching of the Vedas and the Ågamas and that it was improper for the reciter of the Veda like him to indulge in such a misconception. ¹⁰⁷

^{99. \$}P 1.17.151-52. As against this anxiety of the \$P\$ to establish its Vedic inheritance, one also comes across the claim made on behalf of the Purāṇas in general that the Vedas themselves are founded on the Purāṇas (wedāļi pratisthitāh savve purāṇeṣveva sarvadā—Nāradiya 2.24.17). The \$\text{Srutis}\$ and the \$Smrtis\$ are said to be the two eyes, while the Purāṇas claim to constitute the explicatory extension (upaḥrāhapa) of the Veda, that is, of the Vedic mantras, legends, symbols, and conventions. Actually, however, the Purāṇas have intrinsically very little to do with the Vedas.

^{100.} See above. SP 1.20.1 ff.

^{101.} e. g. SP 1.13. 21-23.

^{102.} SP 2.3.23.51 : pranamya tuştuvuh süktaih vedopanişadanvitaih.

^{103.} Ibid. 2.2,11,40.

^{104.} Ibid. 2.2.32.59 : vedamaryādapālakah.

^{105.} Ibid. 2.2.26. 44-45.

^{106.} Ibid. 2.3.19.5 : Srutisīmā vilanghitā.

^{107.} Ibid. 2.2.10. 29-32,

A feature which the SP shares with many other Puranas is that the same myth is sometimes presented in different versions in different contexs. This is accounted for in several ways. instance. Brahmā tells Nārada that, due to the difference of kalpas, the story of the birth of Ganesa is narrated in different ways and that, on that particular occasion, he would narrate it as it was current in the śvetavārāhakalpa. 108. In another context, while the Sūta was narrating the legend of Gangā and Gautama to the sages, the sages are shown to have protested to the Sūta by saying that what they had formerly heard was different from what he was telling. The Sūta explained to them that it was so because of the difference of kalpas¹⁰⁹. According to the Purānas, the happenings of one Kalpa, are repeated in another Kalpa, but there do occur some changes in respect of details. The fact of the different versions of the same myth is explained away also by referring to the different incarnations (avatāras). However, the main reason for such differences is to be sought in the protracted oral transmission of the Purayas. In the process of telling and re-telling, the legends accumulate many additional details and much incidental material, and their form and content are also greatly influenced by the character of the narrator and of the listener.

The basic form of the SP like that of the most of the $Pur\bar{a}\eta as$, is that of dialogue interspersed with the repetition of the earlier dialogues. Though, once in a while, the compiler of the $Pur\bar{a}\eta a$ swears by conciseness¹¹⁰, he is generally prone to loquaciousness. Strangely enough, some absurdities are seen to have occurred in the course of the narration. For instance, Brahmā, not unoften, refers to himself in the third person.. 111 Or Brahmā recounts to Nārada what Nārada himself had done, sometimes referring to Nārada in the third person. 112 In a long versified popular narrative, the constant use of particles like ha, vai, tu is perhaps unavoidable for metrical purpose. To search for real poetry in the SP is likely to prove a futile exercise. However, one does

^{108.} *ŚP* 2.4.13. 5-6.

^{109.} Ibid. 4.27. 23-24.

^{110.} Ibid. 2.2.14.8 : tan no varnyate vyāsato bhayāt.

^{111.} Ibid. 2.3.18.37.

^{112.} Ibid. 2.2.32. 15-17; 2.3.1.10.

occasionally hear the echoes of Kālidāsa's words and ideas.¹¹⁸ SP 2.3.24.27¹¹⁴ would remind one of Bhagavadgītā 2.62-63. Puns such as the ones on hari (=Viṣṇu; monkey)¹¹⁵ and avadāna (=heroic act; cutting into pieces)¹¹⁶ are quite rare.

Perhaps the most noteworthy feature of the style of the SP, however, is the large number of philologically fanciful¹¹⁷ etymologies which it gives in order to hit a particular point, or to illuminate the essential character of the entity denoted by the etymologised word, or to emphasize and glorify its teaching. Even in the few chapters of the Purāņa which have been studied for this paper, one comes across as many as thirtyfive instances of such etymologising.¹¹⁸ There is no doubt that the Purāṇa exhibits remarkable ingenuity in these etymologising exercises. Some of these etymologies have been already noted in Part I and the prior portion of the present paper.¹¹⁹ Among other words of which etymologies have been given in different contexts in the chapters by this paper are:

Aparnā:

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āhāre tyaktaparņābhud yasmād himavatah sutā |
tena devair aparņeti kathitā nāmatah Śivā ||
(ŚP 2.3.22.49)
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(Pārvati came to be called Aparņā because, in her penance, she had abandoned all kinds of leaves—parņas—in her meals. 120)

^{113.} SP e.g. SP 2.2.17.19 = Raghu. 1.49; SP 2.3.28.37 = Kumāra. 5.83.

^{114.} Kāmo hi narakāyaiva tasmāt krodho 'bhijayāte | Krodhāt bhavati sammoho mohāc ca bhramsate tapah.

^{115.} SP 2.1.3.32.

^{116.} Ibid. 2.2.36.35.

^{117.} There are said to be two contrasting approaches to etymology—philological and philosophical,

^{118.} In some instances, in the right Nirutta fashion, more than one etymology have been given of one single word.

^{119.} The etymologies of the following words (given in the alphabetical order) have alredy been noted: ātman, kubera, guru, nārāyaṇa, purāṇa, pājā, praṇava, braḥman, bhaga, bhagaoān, bharga, bhama, bhaga, rudrākṣa, liṅga, viṣṇu, fiva, fiṣya, fuśrāṣā, and simha.

^{120.} cf. Kumāra, 5.28.

Arundhati:

na ruņaddhi yato dharmam sā kasmādapi kāraņāt | atas triloke viditam nāma samprāpa tatsvayam || (ŚP 2.2.7.17)

(Brahmā's daughter Saṁdhyā came to be called Arundhatī because she did not hinder sacred rites.)

āstikva:

karmaŋām phalamastīti buddhir āstikym ucyate | (ŚP 1.15.55)

(Astikya is the belief that all actions have appropriate fruits.)

Umā:

(a) tadometi nāma cakre tasyā dakṣas tadājñayā |
prafastāyāḥ sarvaguņasattvād api mudānvitaḥ ||
(\$\frac{CP}{2.2.14.49})\$

(The word $um\bar{a}$ connected with uma[=splendour, fame] or $\bar{u}ma[=favour]$?)

(b) umeti mātrā tapaso niṣiddhā kālikā ca sā | pafeād umākhyām sumukhī jagāma bhuvane mune || (SP 2.3.7.17)

(Pārvatī came to be called Umā because she was dissuaded from penance by her mother with the words $u[oh]m\bar{a}$ [don't.]¹²¹)

(c) tāponişiddhā tapase vanam gantum ca menayā |
hetunā tena someti nāmz prāpa Šivā tadā ||
(SP 2.3.22.25)

(Menā dissuaded [mā] Pārvatī from going to the forest.)

Kandarpa:

.... jāto darpāt sa darpakaḥ | (ŚP 2.2.3.6)

(Madana was called Kandarpa [and Darpaka] because he was born haughty.)122

^{121.} cf. Kumāra, 1.26.

^{122.} Also cf. kam darpayāmīti madājjātamātro jagāda ca | tena kandarpanāmānam tam cakāra caturmukhaḥ||

Kāma:

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jagatsu kāmarūpas tvam tvatsamo na hi vidyate |
atas tvam kāmanāmāpi khyāto bhava manobhava ||
(ŚP 2.2.3.5)
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(Kāma assumes any form he wishes.)

Kubera :

Kuhero bhava nāmnā tvam mama rāperṣyayā suta |
bhavaikapingo netreņa vāmena sphuṭitena ha ||
(5P 2.1.19.30.31)

(Kubera has ugly [ku] bodily form [bera].128)

gāyatrī:

gāyakam trāyale pātād gāyatrītyucyate hi sā| SP 1.15.16)

(Gāyatrī saves her reciter from downfall.)

iīva :

(a) jīryate janmakālad yat tasmājjīva iti smṛtaḥ | (ŚP 1.16.99)

(Jiva starts getting decayed even from the time of birth.)

(b) janmatas tanyate pāśair jīvaśabdārtha eva ca | (SP 1.16.100)

(Jiva gets enmeshed by fetters.)¹²⁴ $j\bar{n}ana$:

janijam ca tirodhānam na nişedhārthameva hi | (\$P 1.17.80-81)

(J#āna implies negation of the evanescence born of birth). Jvālāmukh \bar{i} :

satīdehasamutpannā jvālā lokasukhāvahā|
patitā parvats...........

(SP 2.2.1.41)

(Jvālāmukhī is the flame of fire which issued from Sati's body and fell down on a mountain. This is not a direct etymology.)

^{123.} See Part I of this paper.

^{124.} This etymology is not quite clear.

þātra :

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patanāt trāyata iti pātram sāstresu vujvate |
dātus ca pātakāt trānāt pātramity adhidhī pate //
                                      (SP 1.15.15)
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(A person who deserves to receive gifts is called pātra because he saves the giver from downfall.)

Madana:

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madanānmadanākhyas tvam......
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(SP 2.2.3.6)

(Madana causes infatuation.)

Manmatha:

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yasmāt pramathase tattvam jāto'smākam yathā vidheh |
tasman manmathanāmā tvam loke khyāto bhavisyasi ||
                                       (SP 2.2.3.4)
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(Since at your birth itself you agitate our minds, you will come to be known as Manmatha.)

māyā:

```
mā laksmīh karmabhogo vai vāti mā veti kathvate |
mā laksmīh jāānabhogo vai yāti māyeti kathyate ||
                                      (SP 1.17.69)
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 $m\bar{a} = \text{enjoyment resulting from action and knowledge; both}$ are bondages; māyā causes these bondages.)

māra :

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eta utpannamātrā hi mārayetyavadan vacah |
muhurmuhurato'misam nama mareti jayatam ||
                                  ($P 2.2.9.42)
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(Even as the ganas were produced out of Brahma's deep sighs, they shouted maraya, 'kill,' again and again; hence they came to be called mara; they were to help Kama against Siva.)

Vasanta:

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(a) cintāvistasya me tasya nihśvāso yo vinihsrtah /
    tasmāt vasantah sam jātah puspavrātavibhūsitah //
                                            (SP 2.2.8.37)
```

(The word vasanta is here connected with svas; Vasanta born out of Brahma's sigh.)125

^{125.} This is not a direct etymology.

(b) vasaterantahetutvād vasantākhyo bhavatayam | (SP 2.2.8.47)

(Vasanta is the ultimate [anta] cause of permanent abode [vasati] which is made possible by marriage.)

Samdhyā:

brahmaņo dhyāyato yasmāt samyagjātā varānganā | ataḥ samdhyeti vikhyātā krāntābhā tylyamallikā || (ŚP 2.2.3.10)

(Samdhyā was born from Brahmā's dhyāna.)

Smara:

(a) sasmāra sa smaram šakrah cetasā devanāyakah | ājagāma drutam kāmah samadhīrmahisisutah || (ŚP 2.1.2.3)

(Madana or Smara made himself availall as soon as Indra remembered—sasmāra—him.) 126

(b) vihṛtya suciram kālam Kailāsagirikuñjare | agamaddhimavatþrastham sasmāra svecchayā smaram || (ŚP 2.2.21.28)

(Siva remembered Kāma of his own accord).127

In the course of its main narrative, the SP incidentally introduces various topics of general interest. Of course, not all of them can be said to be covered by the definition of Purāṇa. But most of them are derived from the Dharmaśāstra and other allied literature. For instance, in one context, the Purāṇa says that the whole world would be ruined if it were to become devoid of the fear of a ruler. 128 Wealth is said to be of three kinds—clean or excellent (fuddha or uttama), middling, and low. In the case of a Brāhmaṇa, the wealth which is acquired by gleaning more than one ear of corn at a time or by gleaning ears of corn

- 126. This is not a direct etymology. It is rather a pun.
- 127. This too is more like a pun. Elsewhere the Purāna gives a proper etymology. Siva burnt Kāma and reduced him to mere memory; therefore Kāma came to be known as Smara.
- 128. ŚP 1.8.12. Eisewhere (ŚP—Dharma. 10.187-90) the sages who castrate Śiva in the Dāruvana specifically say that they are doing so because there is no king to punish them.

one by one,129 and by way of fees received from the pupils is suddha dravya. It secures for him full fruit. The wealth derived by a Brāhmana from monetary gifts is middling, and that obtained through agriculture and trade is the lowliest. The best wealth for a Ksatriya is that which is derived through valour, for a Vajšva that which is derived from trade, and for a Sudra that which is derived from wages. Patrimony and whatever is received form the husband constitute the wealth of a woman. 180 It is enjoined that every one should set apart one third of his wealth for dharma. one third for augmenting (vrddhi), and one third for one's own enjoyment (bhoga)131 which last, however, should be restrained and wholesome. The Purāna also gives some further details regarding the disposal of wealth. 132 In another context the SP speaks of different kinds of gifts and the fruits derived therefrom. 188 It also mentions twelve things—one each to be given away in each one of the twelve months. Or they should all be given away together on some auspicious occasion, 184 Elsewhere a reference is made to the giving away of food attended with ten ancillary rites (dafāngadāna) and to the different fruits accruing from it under different circumstances. 185

Describing the Sivaksetra and its traditions, the SP says that the earth is fifty crores of yojanas in extent, abounds in mountains and forests, and supports the people at Siva's bidding. 186 It fur-

^{129.} Śila and uñcha as interpreted by Kullūka in his commentary on Manusmṛti 10.112.

^{130.} SP 1.15.39-42.

^{131.} Bhoga is said to be of three types-nitya, naimittika, and kāmva.

^{132.} SP 1.13.72-78.

^{133. /}bid. 1.15.47ff.

^{134.} Ibid. 1.15.42-45. The twelve things are: cow, land, sesame, gold, clarified butter, clothes, food-grains, jaggery, silver, salt, pumpkin-gourd, and virgin.

Ibid. 1.15.26-28. The ten ancillary services are: honour-135. ing, inviting, oil bath, washing etc. of the feet, offering clothes, scents, etc., offering of side-dishes, offering of $t\bar{a}mb\bar{u}la$, offering of $dak \bar{\mu}\bar{u}$, salutation, and following a few steps.

^{136.} *ŚP* 1.12.1 ff.

ther adds that, if a man dies in the Bhāratavarṣa, 137 he is reborn as man in virtue of his having lived in a place sanctified by the svayambhā linga. Then there follows a fairly detailed description of various rivers, like Gangā, Godāvarı, Kṛṣṇaveṇi, and Narmadā, in which geographical and astrological details are mixed up pell-mell. A reference may be made in this very context to the account of the creation of the days by Mahādeva¹⁸⁸ and the establishment of their presiding deities in the 'pvilfcakra.¹⁸⁰

In another context, the SP gives a somewhat mysterious description of the various worlds. Fourteen worlds (lokas) beginning with the Pātāla and ending with the Satyaloka are said to have evolved out of the five elements, namely, earth, etc. They are Brahmalokas. Beyond the Satyaloka and ending with the Kṣamāloka are fourteen Viṣṇulokas. In the excellent city of Vaikuṇṭha in the Kṣamāloka resides kāryaviṣṇu together with kāryalakṣmi. Beyond the kṣamāloka and ending with the Suciloka are the twentyeight Rudralokas. In Kailāsa in the Suciloka resides Rudra. Beyond the Suciloka and ending with the Ahimsāloka are fiftysix Sivalokas. In the city of Jāānakailāsa in the Ahimsāloka resides Kāryeśvara. At the end of the Ahimsāloka there is the Kālacakra and beyond it the Kālatīta. This description is followed by complex details regarding karmabhoga, jāānabhoga, karmamāyā, jīānaloka, etc. 141

^{137.} Bhāratavarşa was regarded as one of the nine divisions of the earth, the other eight being Kuru, Hiranmaya, Ramyaka, Ilāvṛta, Hari, Ketumāla, Bhadrāśva, and Kinnara.

^{138.} SP 1.14.12-20. First day of Siva himself for good health; second day of Sivamāyā for wealth; third day of Kumāra for surmounting idleness etc; fourth day of Viṣṇu for protection and well-being; the fifth day of Brahmā for long life; the sixth day of Indra for worldly enjoyments; and the seventh day of Yama for the removal of premature death.

^{139.} Jyotiścakra is the arrangement of stars, planets, constellations, etc., conceived as a wheel. It is sometimes referred to as fimśumāracakra.

^{140.} SP 1.17.59-64.

^{141.} Ibid, 1.17.68-79.

Reverting from the cosmic matters to the mundane ones, one finds that, by way of the preparation for the $lingap\bar{n}j\bar{a}$, the SP sets forth elaborate rules for such purificatory acts as the evacuation of bowels and the cleaning of teeth. Curiously enough, these rules are different for the different varnas—women being included among the $\hat{S}\bar{u}dras.^{142}$ In an interesting passage, the $Pur\bar{a}\eta a$ says that, in the body of a devotee of $\hat{S}iva$, the portion below the navel belongs to Brahmā and that up to the throat 143 to Visnu while the face (mukha) is the $\hat{S}ivalinga$ itself. 144

^{142.} SP 2.1.11. 18-27.

^{143.} v.l. āskandham for ākaņtham

^{144.} SP 1.17.143-44.

COSMOGONY IN THE MARKANDEYA PURANA

Ву

VALERIE PERRETT & ROY W. PERRETT

T

Cosmogonic myths have a long history in Hindu thought. Several such myths can be found as far back as the Vedas (e. g. Rg Veda X. 90); others can be found in the Brāhmaṇas and Upanisads (e. g. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa XI. 1. 6. 1ff; Chāndogya Upanisad III. 19).

However, it is not until the development of Purāṇic literature that cosmogony becomes discussed as a subject in its own right. This is due to the fact that the Purāṇas declare that they are to concern themselves with five subjects: the pañcalakṣaṇas. Three of these five lakṣaṇas deal with aspects of cosmogony: sarga or prākṛtasarga deals with the creation of the entire universe; pratisarga with the recreation of the triple world after a period of dissolution; and the subject of the manvantaras with the cosmic time cycles in which both sarga and pratisarga occur.² In this essay we shall deal with each of these topics as it is treated of in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa, We shall deal with the cosmic time cycles before beginning the final discussion of recreation.

II

In Canto XLV of the Mārkandeja Purāņa Jaimini enquires about the creation (sarga) of the universe and about its consequent dissolution. In answer to the question about creation we are told

- Cf H. Jacobi, "Cosmogony and Cosmology (Indian)" in James Hastings, ed., Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics Vol. 4 (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1918), pp. 155-161.
- Cf. R. C. Hazra, "The Puranas" in The Cultural Heritage of India Vol. 2 (Calcutta: The Ramakrishna Mission Institute of Culture, 1962), pp. 241-242; Greg Bailey, The Mythology of Brahmā (Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1983), Ch. 4.

that Brahmā is the origin of the universe and that it is he who presided over its creation (verse 19). He is "the cause which, itself unbegotten, works in production, maintenance and dissolution, wherein everything is established" (28-29). Since it is from Brahmā that everything issues, he is called Hiranyagarbha, the golden egg or womb of the universe (29). Brahmā is not a material being; thus he is said to be "imperishable, undecaying, immeasurable, self-dependent, destitute of odour, form, and taste, devoid of sound and touch, without beginning or end" (33-34). His characteristics are said to be possession of the three qualities (guṇas) of goodness, passion and darkness, and being one in whom "soul" (kṣtrajña) was prevalent. It is nevertheless from this immaterial being that matter (pradhāna) came into existence.

Thus far this discussion of creation in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa has followed some Vedic notions on cosmogony. For in at least some passages in the Rg Veda one unborn god, known either as Viśvakarman or Prajāpati, is said to be the creator of the universe.⁵ This account is also consistent with passages on creation in the Brāhmaṇas.⁶ However, from this point the account of creation in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa begins to develop along the lines of Sāmkhya philosophy.⁷ Sāmkhya, of course, is opposed to a belief in one ultimate being or reality. According to this school both puruṣa ("soul") and prakṛti ("matter") are basic constituents of the universe The task, then, for the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa is some how to blend these two apparently incongruous strands. This is attempted, as we shall see, by a series of moves which result in Brahmā being said to be the product of prakṛti and being identical with puruṣa (verses 64-65).

^{3.} The Mārkandeya Purāna, trans, F. Eden Pargitter (Varanasi: Indological Book House, 1981), pp. 219-220.

^{4.} *Ibid.*, p. 220.

Cf. Rg Veda X. 81-82. (A somewhat different view is presented in Rg Veda X, 129). On Prajāpati see J. Gonda, "Notes on Prajāpati" Purāņa 23 (1981): 149-160.

^{6.} Cf. Jacobi, p. 156.

Cf. P. Hacker, "The Sānkhyization of the Emanation Doctrine Shown in a Critical Analysis of Texts" Purāņa 4 (1962): 298-338.

At first it appears that the Markandeva Purana is simply superimposing the Samkhya theory onto that asserting that Brahma brings the universe into creation. For Brahmā is said to be the cause of pradhana and then a Samkhya analysis follows. We now read that from bradhana arises mahat (the great intellect), and from mahat arises ahamkara (the principle of individuality), and from ahamkāra arises the tanmātras (the subtle elements). At this point, however, two slightly different accounts of the tanmātra theory are given. The first (verses 40-48) is more obscure than the second and for this reason we shall only follow the second account (verses 52-56), which follows precisely the usual Sāmkhva analysis.8 Thus ether first arises, which has the quality of sound; next air arises, which has the qualities of sound and touch; then fire emerges, which has three qualities (sound, touch and form). Following this water arises, which possesses four qualities: sound, touch, form and taste. Finally earth arises, which has all the qualities of sound, touch, form, taste and smell.9

At this point the Sāmkhya theory of the origin of the universe and its constituent properties is discontinued. Rather than continuing the Sāmkhya account by outlining the development of the gross elements (bhātas), the Mārkaņḍeya Purāṇa continues by developing a very ancient myth about the origin of the universe from a cosmic egg, which it attempts to outline in a manner consistent with the Sāmkhya account of the cosmogony of the universe.

The cosmic egg myth has a long history in Hindu thought. A version of it can be found in germinal form in the Rg Veda (X. 81-82). Two other quite different but fully developed versions are given in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (XI. 1. 1. 6 ff.) and in the Chāndogya Upaniṭad (III. 19). In the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa this egg is said to have been caused by reason of the puruṣa and the imperceptible

For a comparison with the usual Sāmkhya account see M. Hiriyanna, Outlines of Indian Philosophy (London: Allen & Unwin, 1932), p. 276.

^{9.} The tanmātras are named after the quality distinctive to each: e. g. sabda tanmātra is the essence of sound, sparśatanmātra the essence of touch, and so on.

^{10.} See Jacobi, pp. 156-157.

mahat and other (presumably sāmkhya) principles (verses 61-62). Once in existence this egg lay

... like a bubble on water, the egg gradually increased by means of the things that existed.... In its enlarged state it lay on the water. The Soul [ksetrajia] having increased inside the egg sprung from Prakriti, took the name Brahmā; it indeed was the first corporeal being, it indeed is called Purusha. And Brahmā existed first, the original maker of created beings. That egg enclosed all these three worlds with all that they contain moveable and immoveable. Meru was born from it, and as the after-birth were born the mountains; the oceans were the fluid contained within that egg which held the great soul. Within that egg was all this world, with the gods and demons and mankind, and the continents and other lands, the mountains and oceans, and the throng of luminous worlds. (63-67)¹¹

In this myth we see Brahma's identity with both prakrti and purusa asserted. Indeed, contrary to the earlier account (verses 35-37) where Brahma the non-corporeal causes the corporeal, we now have the two fundamental constituents of reality in Samkhya (i.e. purusa and prakrti) being put together in the figure of Brahmā. Thus on this account, which is very much a theistic interpretation of the atheistic Sāmkhya doctrine, we find Brahmā no longer the one ultimate reality as was earlier asserted in the Markandeva Purāna: but neither is he rejected. Rather, Brahmā has become the first corporeal being, who will in turn create other beings. But the ultimate constituents of reality are now prakrti and purusa. Not only does the Purāņa now espouse the Sāmkhya doctrine of the dual nature of reality in this mythic account of cosmogony, it further attempts to link the whole myth into the Sāmkhya account. Thus we next read that the egg, which contains the potential earth (earth being the last of the tanmatras) was enveloped by the other four elements (water, air, fire and ether) and by the ahamkara, mahat and the imperceptible; and that all this together makes up the permanent prakṛti (verses 67-70). The Canto now ends by saying that this first stage of creation (sarga) was from prakrti (73).

^{11.} The Mārkandeya Purāna, pp. 222-223.

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We have seen, then, Brahmā being incorporated into a basically Sāmkhya account of cosmogony. But this Brahmā is a very different Brahmā from that encountered at the beginning of this Canto. From being the basic unborn reality, Brahmā now comes into existence out of prakrti. Brahmā is no longer an incorporeal being, but rather the first corporeal being. And no longer does he bring matter into existence, but rather matter brings him into existence.

In as much, then, as this Canto is attempting to harmonize two quite different accounts of creation, it has failed to do so. In the very attempt the first account becomes so altered that one can only conclude that it gives way to the second, which is a mythologized and theistic version of an otherwise Sāmkhya account of cosmogony.

We might ask: Why bother with this first account at all if it cannot be harmonized with the second? In this case the first point to be made is that the first account is that of the Vedas and the Vedas are authoritative texts which cannot be simply ignored. The second point is that it was the $s\bar{s}ta's$ duty to record the stories down to him. Thus he could not simply do away with a story, but had (however unsatisfactorily) to record and make some attempt to reconcile different accounts of a given phenomenon, in this case creation, into a harmonious whole.

The third point is of a more theoretical nature. Different accounts of the same phenomena are not very satisfactory from a logical perspective. However, is it possible perhaps that something important is being said by retaining these two incongruous accounts? This is a possibility raised by Wendy O'Flaherty. She argues that in Purānic materials generally:

What is important is what is repeated, reworked to fit different circumstances, transformed even to the point of apparent meaninglessness, but always retained.¹²

Wendy Doniger O'Flaherty, Asseticism and Eroticism in the Mythology of Siva (London: Oxford University Press, 1973), p. 18.

Even when the combining of disparate elements seems most unsatisfactory, we should not dismiss the myth. Rather this is when it is most rewarding to analyse the combination, "for only a strong emotional bond can bridge a wide logical gap".¹³

A tension between two elements equally important to the Hindu tradition is revealed in such mythic contradictions. The tradition cannot logically reconcile both elements and yet is emotionally committed to retaining both elements. The "solution" is to present the incongruity in mythic form; not resolving the tension but rather seeking to "dissolve" it by appealing to the emotions to make an imaginative leap across the logical gap. What is especially revealing about such mythic contradictions is that they usually pinpoint important tensions in the tradition, for it is generally the felt need for some solution to a problem that prompts the mythic invitation to make such an imaginative leap.

Going back, then, to our question, "Why bother with the first account at all if it cannot be harmonized with the second?" We might look for what it is (over and above the two points already mentioned) that makes the writer of this Purāṇa record these two accounts. One thing that stands out is that both accounts are theistic. This is all the more striking when it is remembered that the earliest Sāṃkhya philosophy (on which the second account is modelled) is atheistic. (Theism in Sāṃkhya only becomes established around the 14th century A. D.)14 Hence Mārkaṇdeya Purāṇa is apparently attempting to maintain a place for God (in this case Brahmā) in a changed philosophical climate. To do this Brahmā has to become a quite different God. But importantly he is retained and incorporated into what must have been at this time an important philosophical system.

Another point of basic agreement (at a fundamental level) between these two accounts is that both in their own ways accept that the universe is not created ex nihilo. In the first account Brahmā always existed and creates the world out of himself. In the second account purusa and prakṛti are permanent fundamental constituents of reality out of which all else arises. This belief that

^{13.} Ibid., p. 12.

^{14.} Cf. Hiriyanna, pp. 282, 269.

At the dawn of the day Brahmā awakes. He who is anterior to the universe, "who is the origin of the universe, who is without beginning, who is the cause of all things", enters into the two fundamental constituents of reality (i. e. prakṛti and puruṭa) and "agitates them with his intense supernatural power" (verses 8-10).¹⁸ Once prakṛti is agitated in this way we are told:

.... the god Brahmā is born and is contained within the cavity of the egg, At first he is the agitator; as the husband of Nature, he is the thing to be agitated; and he exists with contraction and expansion even in the state of Pradhāna. He is born, though he is the birthplace of the universe; though devoid of qualities, he possesses the quality of passion, when he assumes the character of Brahmā, he engages in creation. (11-13)1°

when engaged in creation this god is known as Brahmā, when engaged in maintaining the universe he is known as Viṣṇu, and when engaged in destroying the universe he is Rudra (14-15).

Before we have time to object that this account is self-contradictory the writer of this Canto appears to simply admit as much without hesitation! Thus he says:

Brahmā who is adored as Hiranya-garbha, the first of the gods, and without beginning, who sits in the middle of the lotus-like earth, was born in the beginning. (21)²⁰

Such an account would leave many Westerners proudly ill at ease. We insist, as Wendy O'Flaherty points out, "on forcing a compromise or a synthesis of opposites". ²¹ It just simply would not do to leave things stand as the Mārkandeya Purāṇa has just done. However in Hindu thought, she argues, it is quite sufficient to leave things in a state of suspension, rather than to offer a solution. Indeed she suggests that this is where the aesthetic satisfaction of the myth lies. By refusing to modify disparate myths Hindu mythology



^{18.} The Markandeya Purana, pp. 224-225.

^{19.} Ibid., p. 225.

^{20.} Ibid., p. 226. (Our emphasis).

^{21.} O'Flaherty, p. 318.

....celebrates the idea that the universe is boundlessly various, that everything occurs simultaneously, that all possibilities may exist without excluding each other Untrammelled variety and contradiction are ethically and metaphysically necessary; this constitutes the peculiar charm and strength of the Hindu world view.^{2,2}

It would seem, then, that if anything positive and coherent is to be gained from studying the Purāṇas, which abound in contradictions such as we have just encountered above, we shall need to adopt O'Flaherty's line of approach. In doing this the tension between the more Vedic teaching that Brahmā is a supreme uncaused being and the teaching that Brahmā is a product of prakrti and puruja (a more Sāmkhya view) dissolves into a celebration of variety. However, we can still ask why it is wished that such a variety be celebrated. And, as was pointed out above, the answer seems to that this occurs where a strong emotional bond to more than one account exists.

In the case under discussion, then, we can argue that attachment to the concept of a supreme being, Brahmā, was too powerful a religious motive to be abandoned. Likewise the explanatory power of the Sainkhya model was attractive. Thus while in Canto XLV we saw Brahmā altered so as to fit into the Sāinkhya model, in Canto XLVI we see the original concept of Brahmā reasserted in conjunction with the later conception of him. Rather than having to choose between these accounts, it is the Puraņic tradition to make both options open to one at the same time. Each account is thus allowed to develop to the full, then a balance is sought by rechannelling or trasforming the force which is now out of balance; but no synthesis of opposites is apparently either required or valued.

v

Returning to the narrative of Canto XLVI, we find that at this point the discussion moves back to the central concern of this Canto: to outline the time period of Brahmā and the whole topic of the ages of the world. The period of time between creation and dissolution is said to be a day in the life of Brahmā, while the

period between dissolution and creation is said to be a night in Brahmā's life. The length of a day and a night in Brahmā's life is specified as follows. Firstly, one human year is a day and a night of the gods (verse 25). Thus one divine year is 360 human years. A period of 12,000 divine years is called a $Tuga~(31).^{28}$ This period consists of four ages, each of declining length: the krta age lasts 4,800 divine years; the $tret\bar{a}$ age, 3,600 divine years; the $dv\bar{a}para$ age, 2,400 divine years; and the kali age, 1,200 divine years (verses 27-30). A thousand times this period of 12,000 divine years is one of Brahmā's days: i. e. 12,000,000 divine years (verse 31).

What is noticeably absent in this account of the yuga myth is the traditional association of each of these ages with a period of virtue or lack of virtue. Generally the krta age is said to be a righteous age and in the following ages righteousness declines until in the kali age the amount of righteousness is said to be only one fourth of that which existed in the krta age. 24 But in these Cantos of the Mārkandeya Purāņa we have only, at best, fleeting references to the degree of perfection which exists in any particular age. No systematic statement of this belief appears to be present. 25 This supports an early dating for these Cantos since the association of the four ages with degrees of virtue was fully established by the time of the Māhāhārata, which reached its final form about 200 A. D. 26 It is the linking of the ages of virtue with the yugas that was the last element to become part of the yuga myth. This development occurred between 200 B. C. and 400 A. D. 27

^{23.} It is perhaps more usual to find this period referred to as a mahāyuga or caturyuga: compare Thomas J. Hopkins, The Hindu Religious Tradition (Encino, Calif.: Dickenson, 1971), p. 101; H. Jacobi, "Ages of the World (Indian)", p. 200.

Cf. J. Dowson, A Classical Dictionary of Hindu Mythology 12th ed., (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1979), pp. 381ff.; Heinrich Zimmer, Myths and Symbols in Indian Art and Civilization (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1946), pp. 13-19.

^{25.} Cf. Canto XLIX, Verses 56-57.

^{26.} Cf. Dowson, p. 381.

Cf. Cornelia D. Church, "The Purāṇic Myth of the Four Yugas" Purāṇa 13 (1971): 157.

In one of these days of Brahmā fourteen Manus reign and after seventy one repetitions of these four ages a manuatara has been completed (verses 32-34). The universe is then destroyed and Brahmā sleeps for a night while the universe is dissolved into an ocean (40). And so, concludes Canto XLVI, "passes one of Brahmā's years, and a hundred years is the whole" (41). 28

This last passage suggests that (contrary to earlier passages previously cited) Brahma's life eventually comes to an end. This view is not peculiar to the Markandeya Purana.29 However, neither is it the only Hindu view,30 What we are concerned with for the moment is what follows from the view that Brahmā is not eternal. Does the world then dissolve, never to come into existence again? The Markandeva Purana remains silent on this point. But if such permanent dissolution were the case, then the significance of the myth about the cyclical nature of the universe loses its force. Moreover other Puranas do see the universe as continuing after Brahmā ceases. In some Visnu and/or Siva are seen as continuing to live after Brahma's life has ended. These Puranas thus introduce recreation myths in which these gods figure in the continuation of the universe.81 Zimmer also notes another device to overcome the shortcomings the theory would have if the universe did cease upon Brahma's death. This is the variation where upon Brahma's death all does dissolve, but this state of dissolution continues only for one hundred of Brahma's years, after which the entire cycle begins again.82

Finally, before we go on to examine the accounts of recreation in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa, let us pause to consider the significance of the yuga myth in Hindu thought. Addressing the question, "Why has the yuga story been retold so many times?", Cornelia Church has argued that it is important as it provides cosmological, histori-

^{28,} The Markandeya Purana, p. 228.

Cf. F. E. Pargiter, "Purānas" in James Hastings, ed., Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics Vol. 10 (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clerk, 1918), pp. 449-450; Zimmer, p. 19.

For an example of an alternative Hindu view see Bailey, pp. 103-104.

See, for example, Hopkins' account (p. 101) of the treatment in the Viṣṇu Purāṇa.

^{32.} Zimmer, p. 19.

cal, theological and psychological dimensions within which to understand the world. ⁸³ We may summarize her interesting discussion as follows. Firstly, from the point of view of cosmology it provides a cosmic calendar, the origin of which lay in the observation of the phases of the moon. This knowledge of cosmic time enabled man

•••• especially in the Vedic cult, to adapt his actions, both ritual and profane, to the behaviour of the divine powers, with the aim of controlling these powers to act for the benefit of man. 84

From the point of view of history, the myth's importance lies in providing a system of recording the kings and dynasties. Moreover, when the account of the yugas becomes linked with eras of varying virtue, each of these ages becomes a symbol of this virtue which is reflected in the legendary history that each age is associated with. Thus the krtayuga becomes the history of heroic deeds, the $tret\bar{a}$ age the history of priesthood, the $dv\bar{a}parayuga$ the history of doubt, and the kaliyuga the history of strife. This account thus becomes a self-conscious reflection of the history of the Aryan people in India. 35

From the viewpoint of theology, Eliade sees the juga myth as a system designed to guarantee one's eventual return to one's divine and perfect origins. For when the cataclysm comes at the end of time and between Brahmā's days, one is reunited with Brahmā. 34

Finally, from the viewpoint of psychology, the yuga myth is important as it is a symbol of the "self":

The Yuga Story is an expression of the successful achievement of the goal of the psychic journey to wholeness: a balanced selfhood in which good and bad, light and dark, life and death, creation and destruction or being and non-being

Cornelia D. Church, "The Myth of the Four Yugas in the Sanskrit Purāṇas: A Dimensional Study" Purāṇa 16 (1974): 5-25.

^{34.} Ibid., p. 11.

^{35.} Ibid., pp. 15-17.

^{36.} Ibid., p. 18.

are forever held in a balance of creative tension that alternates from pole but never collapses entirely.³⁷

Another area in which the <code>juga</code> myth has had some importance should also be noted. This is in connection with the doctrine of <code>karma</code>. If over many, many lives one is to reap the just deserts of one's actions, then it is necessary that time is such that it can provide the requisite arena in which this can take place. A cyclical view of time which is of infinite duration can guarantee that the <code>karma</code>, good or bad, will bear fruit.

VI

Having thus explained the universe's periods of dissolution the Purāṇa now continues to outline what takes place after the occurrence of one of Brahmā's nights and the topic of recreation (pratisarga) is taken up at length in Canto XLVII. Interestingly we do not find the recreation stories having much in common with those concerning creation, even though it would seem that the creation stories could have provided at least the basis for these recreation myths. Because of this some scholars have noted just how useful the belief in recreation is in providing a place for the many creation myths that abounded in Hindu thought. 38

The recreation myth that now begins is set after the last expired kalpa. Brahmā awakes, he gazes upon an empty world and then, knowing that the earth has disappeared in water and desiring to recreate it, he assumes various bodies: those of a fish, a tortoise, a boar, other animals and a heavenly form (verses 3-8). Then this "lord of the world" enters the water and raises the earth out of the lower regions and sets it free. The earth now floats like an immense boat on an ocean (9-10). Having done this, Brahmā levels the earth, creates the mountains, divides the earth and fashions the four worlds (11-14). Brahmā now meditates on his creation and, while thus engaged, life on earth is produced. First, vegetation arises (17). Then the animal world comes into existence (18-21). Thirdly, the gods are created; and their existence is said to please Brahmā (22-24). Fourthly, mankind comes into existence;

^{37.} Ibid., p. 22.

Cf. H. Jacobi, "Cosmogony and Cosmology (Indian)". p. 158.

in this myth men are said to be characterized by ignorance and passion and hence "they have abundance of suffering, and are continuously engaged in action" (27).³⁹

At this point this myth of recreation in fact comes to an end. However, as if to provide a bridge between this and a quite independent Sārinkhya account of recreation, the Mārkandeya Purāṇa continues by introducing elements of the Sārinkhya account as if they were a natural continuation of the recreation myth. Thus the fifth object of Brahmā's creation is said to be anugraha (the principle of intellectual creation), and the sixth object of his creation is the creation of the origins of the bhātas as well as the bhātas (gross elements of matter) themselves (28-30). This is clearly the introduction of a new account, for Brahmā has already engaged in creating what, in Sāmkhya, depends upon the prior creation of the bhātas.

From Verse 31 onwards, however, all efforts to tie the recreation myth in with Sāmkhya philosophy end and the Canto closes by outlining in brief the Sāmkhya doctrine of creation as arising out of prakrti and puruṣa. However, as we noted above, a theistic touch is maintained even in the Sāmkhya-type account. In this instance Prajāpati is credited with having created the nine creations just outlined in this Sāmkhya-type account (36).

VII

As Canto XLVIII opens we find that the Mārkaṇḍeṇa Purāṇa has not two accounts of recreation, but three. This third account to some extent appears to build from the earlier mythic account of recreation. It is thus mainly concerned with explaining the creation of the four classes of beings. But it is not simply a continuation of the earlier myth, for in that earlier account, as we saw, Brahmā creates both the gods and man. The account of how he created these two classes of beings differs from that now encountered.

In the first place it is here that for the first time in the Mārkaṇdeya Purāṇa account we are introduced to the very important doctrine of karma in Hindu thought. Thus Mārkaṇdeya

^{39.} The Markandeya Purana, p. 231.

states that at the beginning of each kalpa created beings who were destroyed are not delivered "from the consequences of their actions" as each being will be recreated by Brahmā according to his karma (verse 2).4°

Once again in the process of recreation we find Brahmā engaged in meditation, attempting to create the four classes of beings: the gods, the asuras, the pitrs and men (4-12).⁴¹ We also find that Brahmā again immerses himself in water. But from this point this recreation myth departs from that encountered earlier. Now Brahmā is said to assume different bodies out of which he creates the four classes of beings. From the buttocks of the body of Brahmā enveloped in darkness arose the asuras (5-6). From the mouth of body of Brahmā which experiences delight the gods were born (7-8). The pitrs are produced while Brahmā deems himself one (9-10). And in a fourth body, a body characterized by passion, mankind was produced (11-12).

Although this Canto begins with Brahmā being desirous of creating just the four classes of being, this duly done we now find Brahmā engaging in creating other creatures:

Now after creating these four, the Prajāpati, feeling hunger and thirst, took another body composed of passion and darkness during the night. (18)42

Out of this body were produced the $r\bar{a}kjasas$ and yakjas. On seeing these, we are told, Brahmā's hair withered and the withering of his hair caused serpents and snakes to arise (21-22). In anger at this Brahma causes flesh-eating demons to be born (23). Brahmā next meditated, this time on the earth, and the gandharvas were born as his offspring (24).

The recreation of the animal and vegetable world is next detailed. Various animals and plants are said to have been produced out of parts of Brahma's body. Thus, for instance,

^{40.} Ibid., p. 233.

Bailey (pp. 107-109) reminds us, however, that meditation alone is not all that Brahmā does to recreate the world; Brahmā while meditating is also recreating through progenation.

^{42.} The Markandeya Purana, p. 234.

goats were created out of Brahma's mouth, sheep from his breast, and plants and fruit-producing trees from the hair of his body (25-28).

At this point it is suggested that this third recreation account is set at the beginning of the tretā age (29). Any problems, then, with getting this account to cohere with the earlier ones are thus avoided. However, one might conjecture as to whether the further acts of creation in this myth, (from the point where Brahmā creates the rākṣasas), are not part of some independent myth fairly neatly tacked on to the account of the creation of the four classes of beings.

VIII

In Canto XLIX the account of the recreation of the human race at the beginning of the tretā age is continued. We find here an outline of how it came about that men were to be separated into four classes. A thousand pairs of human beings were created from Brahma's mouth; these beings were characterized by goodness (3-4). Another thousand pairs were created from his breast; these were characterized by passion (5). Again, another thousand "miserable pairs" were created from his thighs; these were charaterized by passion and ignorance (5-6). The last thousand pairs of human beings were produced from Brahm a's feet; these were characterized by ignorance and were "unfortunate and little of understanding" (7). Obviously these four groups correspond to the brāhmaņa, kṣatriya, vaisya and fādra classes. Morever this aspect of this recreation myth is clearly derived from various Vedic ideas, for in the Rg Veda (X. 90) the brāhmaņa is said to be produced from the mouth of Purusa, the rajanya from his arms, the vaifya from his thighs, and the śūdra from his feet.43

Recreation myths are, of course, necessary given the Hindu view of recurring periods of dissolution and creation; and every recreation provides yet another opportunity for the Hindu thinker either to utilize an old myth or introduce a new one. But within this permissive setting some basic concepts do seem to remain standard (if not necessary) features of the recreation myths. For

^{43.} Cf. H. Jacobi, "Cosmogony and Cosmology (Indian)", p. 156.

instance, recreation is always the result of the actions of a god. In the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa this god is always Brahmā, and this remains so even in the Sāṃkhya-type account. The image of water, too, seems a recurrent symbol of both the recreation and creation processes.

Finally, it should be noted that in the discussion of recreation in the Mārkandēya Purāṇa we again meet with the problems encountered in the account of creation. Once again the Purāṇa puts forward two incongruous accounts (that of the Sāṃkhya philosophy and that of the mythic accounts) without harmonizing the two. As before, it seems most profitable hermenutically to regard this as a celebration of variety, rather than an incoherent muddle. And once again it is also instructive to observe a certain tension in the tradition that the conflict of these two recreation accounts points up. In this case it is the tension between the atheistic Sāṃkhya strand and the theistic mythic strand as applied to the notion of recreation. And this in turn is a special case of a more general tension in Hinduism between atheistic and theistic strands: the Hindu tradition never comes down squarely in favour of either, but generally tries to preserve both.

IX

To sum up. We have examined the teachings of the Markandeva Purana on cosmogony, particularly the accounts it offers of creation (sarga) and recreation (pratisarga), and of the cosmic time cycles (manuantaras) within whith sarga and pratisarga take place. In addition to many interesting points of detail, we have seen that the Purana's teachings on these matters incorporate diverse, and often incongruous, traditions. In order to make coherent sense of what is happening when we encounter such conflicting accounts, we have suggested the adoption of a general hermeneutical principle that Wendy O'Flaherty has fruitfully utilized for Puranic studies. Such a principle will, it has been argued, enable us to appreciate prima facie contradictory accounts as attempting mythic "resolutions" of internal tensions within the Hindu tradition. (Hence, for example, tensions between theistic and atheistic strands within Hinduism are pointed up in the Mārkandeya Purāna's creation/recreation myths).

THE PURANIC TEXT AND THE DATE OF THE MAHĀ-BHĀRATA WAR—A HISTORICAL AND ARCHAEOLOGICAL APPROACH*

Ву

S. SANKARANARAYANAN

Multidimensional is the problem of deciding the date of the Kurukṣetra war of the Mahābhārata (abbreviated MB hereafter). Host of scholars have said much on this subject. Seminars, symposia have been held; statements, assertions, exchanges of views, arguments, counter-arguments, criticisms, and refutations at times all bordering acrimony—have risen and are arising; and they

*List of Abbreviations

AIU: The Age of Imperial Unity: The History and Culture of Indian People, Vol. II: Ed. R. C. Majumdar etc., Bombay, 1980.

DKA: Dynasties of Kali Age by Pargiter, London, 1913.

EI: Epigraphia Indica

IA: Indian Antiquary

PA: Pāṇini's Astādhyāyī.

VA: Vedic Age: History and Culture of the Indian People, Vol. I: Ed. R. C. Majumdar etc., Bombay, 1965.

1. On this subject the recent publications are: The Vedic Age: Ed. R. C. Majumdar, A. D. Pusalkar etc. BVB, 1951 : pp. 271 ff; D. C. Sircar's Studies in the Yugapurana and other Texts (Delhi, 1974) pp. 35 ff.; his Kurukşeira War and the Rajavams avarnana of the Puranas (S. V. University, Tirupati, 1980); Mahabharata-Myth and Reality: Ed. S.P. Gupta and K. S. Ramachandran (Delhi 1976), pp. i-xx, 1-263: a sumptuous volume containing differing view of about thirty reputed scholars; Age of the Bhārata War: Ed. G.S. Agrawala (Delhi, 1979), pp. i-xvi, 1-342; another rich volume containing papers, long and short, of another band of about 47 scholars who took part in the Symposia on the Age of the Bharata War, held in June, 1974 and in October, 1975 under the auspices of the Vidur Seva Ashram, Bijnor (U. P). The present paper is in a way an extension of the last two works. Hence the necessary references, not given here, may be found in these two books.

will be rising in future also. Writers have touched most of the points connected with the problem. Hence, the trodden path, though usually held to be a safe one, seems to be overcrowded and risky also, as far as the present topic is concerned. For, in the familiar path one may get lost in the crowd or may get a hit from one or more giants, already fighting with each other, or ever ready to pounce upon a new entrant. Hence the present paper aims to try a new path. Whether in doing so it succeeds to find a solution or it further complicates the issue, it is for the readers to judge.

1

While trying to understand the problem one finds the scholars arrayed in two opposite camps:

The First Camp has in it a few reputed scholars, according to whom, the MB War was a fiction or myth; even if it was a historical event, it was originally nothing but an insignificant family-feud, but inflated and exaggerated in course of time by the fanciful poets and writers.

The Second Camp has in it a long roll of scholars who believe that the MB War was a historical and epoch making event in the description of which however we find many items that are exaggerated or mythical in character.

In spite of their unanimity against the First Camp in maintaining the historicity and epoch making nature of the MB War, the scholars of the Second Camp find themselves grouped in different warring factions. Ignoring the mutual differences prevailing within each of the factions, the scholars of this Second Camp, may be classified into four major Schools. Their views may be summarised as:

School I: The MB War was fought some time about 3102 B. C., as evidenced by many passages in the MB containing important astronomical details. This is vouched for by the traditions recorded in the Purāṇas, endorsed by the ancient Indian astronomers like Vṛddha Garga (1st cent. B. C, or lst cent. A. D.) and followed by many epigraphs like the Aihole inscription (634 A. D.) of the time of the Western Cāļukya king Pulakeśi II.

School II: The War took place some time in the 26th-25th century B. C. To this effect there is a tradition recorded by the great polymath Varahamihira (6th cent. A. D.), followed by Albiruni (11th century) and Kalhaṇa (12th century) and also by the Hisse Borala inscription (458 A, D.) of a Vakataka ruler.

School III: The War is to be assigned to a period c. 1400-1000 B. C. For a Purāṇic passage speaks unequivocally of 1015 or 1050 years as a period intervening between Parīkṣit's birth (at the end of the MB War) and the accession of Mahāpadma Nanda (c. 382 B. C.). This would place the War in (382+1015 or 1050=) 1397 B. C. or 1432 B. C., i. e., roughly in the 15th century B. C. Further the Purāṇas give a list of 36 generations of kings who are said to have ruled between Yudhiṣthira and Candragupta Maurya (acc. c. 322 B. C.). So by assuming an average of 20 years of reign for each king, a date like[322+(36×20)=] c. 1042 could be suggested for Yudhiṣthira.

School IV: The MB War was an event of about c. 10th-9th century B. C. The archaeological excavations conducted at the sites connected with the MB indicate that the culture represented by the Epic was the Painted Grey Ware (PGW) Culture which is assigned to a time-bracket of c. 1155-500 B. C., on the basis of the C-14 (with MASSA correction) dating method. Because ironweapons are said to have been used in the MB War, and because iron was introduced into the PGW culture, not in the beginning, but only one or two centuries later, the war is to be assigned to c. 10th-9th centuries B. C. Moreover in the Puranic list of the kings of Kausambi we find the name of Udayana who is known to be a contemporary of the Buddha (died in 483 or 487 B. C.) and who may therefore be deemed to have ruled about 500 B. C. This Udayana is the 25th in the genealogical list in which Pariksit figures first. So taking an average of 14 years for the reign of each king, we may get roughly $[(24 \times 14) + 500 = 336 + 500 =]836$ B. C. or some date in the 9th century B. C. for Pariksit's accession.

All these Schools have their own respective grounds to build up their pet theories and they find it hard to meet each other on a common ground. Let us try here whether we can arrange for such a ground where the differences could be thrashed out or at least narrowed down, and the problem may get some sort of solution. Here it may be observed that gulf between the III and IV Schools regarding the date of the War is not too wide to bridge. The former assigns the War to the 14th-10th centuries B. C. and the latter to the 10th-9th centuries B. C. The meeting point could be the 10th century B. C. if evidences are there favouring it. Hence let us try first for a compromise between these Schools. Let us forget for the time being the other camp and also the other two Schools of the present camp.

II

It may be noted that the methodology followed by the School III and that by IV to approach the problem seems to be partly identical. Both arrive at their respective dates on the basis of the average period (which they think appropriate) allotted to a series of kings in the genealogical lists of kings found in the Puranas. But this basis may not be stable enough to build the edifice of solution to the problem of the date of the MB War. For, one cannot be quite sure of what average reign period prevailed at that distant past age; and hence if the average of 14 or 20 years is raised or lowered a little, the conclusion may have to be different. both the Schools work out these genealogico-chronological schemes only to support the dates they have arrived independently by other means, viz., the School III by means of the Puranic passages having clear chronological import and the School IV by means of archaeology. They are the sources of strength of these Schools However the archaeologists of the School IV seem to commit a mistake by totally ignoring those Puranic passages. Likewise the textualists of the School III perhaps commit a similar mistake in setting aside the archaeological evidences on the ground that the archaeology is concerned only with the material cultures and its radio-carbon-dating method is found faulty. In their arguments it has been totally forgotten that the Puranic texts, they depend on, have also become corrupt by the passage of centuries, in the course of which the texts were copied and recopied many a time. fact is absolutely clear from the DKA and from the high number of footnotes therein. Therefore it would be of much help if we bear in mind that literature without archaeology is lame and archaeology without literature is blind. In addition to this, it is also good to keep in mind the following points:

By its very nature, archaeology can give us only a fragmentary knowledge and it cannot be expected to provide us with the full picture of the bygone days. It is also working under great limitations in spite of its immense possibilities of finding out truth. Further it has been widely recognised that all is not going well with the C-14 dates, belonging to the time brackets of 300 B. C. -3,000 B. C. The dendochronologists would add certain number of years to the C-14 dates falling within this period. Yet, archaeology has an edge over other sciences in studying ancient cultures. For, its evidences, if judiciously studied and analysed become almost unquestionable. Because, they are based on tangible findings and are verifiable again and again. However it is true that without literary evidences archaeology would remain blind.

The Aihole prafasti of Pulakesi II (634 A.D) was composed by the poet Ravikirti, who claims to be equal to Kālidāsa and Bhāravi. His text is available to us in its pristine purity. But, Ravikirti's clumsily worded passage, giving the date of the record viz., Kali year 3755 and Saka year 556 has led to a long dispute regarding its intended meaning.2 Now it is anybody's guess as to how many mistakes might have crept into the Puranic texts copied and recopied, perhaps at times revised and doctored without any scruple by the copyists in the course of long centuries; and how much more difficult it would be to get at the meaning intended by the early Pauranikas.

The Paurānikas are invariably of the view that the main purpose of the Puranas is only to teach philosophy, religion, Dharma, ethics, cults, cosmology etc. They do not stress on the genealogies and chronologies which we find at the end of the works, where both the authors and the tired copyists are likely to be less careful. Even today, the Paurānikas give little care to this portion while giving discourses on the Puranas.

Besides, chronology is one of the weak points in our ancient Indian historical traditions. It is but fair to acknowledge this. Even the very sober historian, Kalhana (1150 A.D.) of Kashmir could accept and record with no comment, an untenable chronology for the period prior to the seventh century A. D. The prob-

^{2.} See eg. IA, VIII, pp. 239-40.

lem of the date of the MB seems to have been further complicated by the subsequent writers and poets by inflating the chronology, perhaps with the notion that old is gold and that the more ancient one is the more sacred and superior. Obviously they ignored Kālidāsa's advice to be critical and not to think of the antiquity or modernity of a thing as an indicator of its propriety or purity.

Above all, the texts, particularly the problematic ones, both literary and epigraphical, that have been examined and interpreted once, are found re-examined and reinterpreted as the time and researches progress on. But the Puranic passages on chronology remain almost untouched all these years since 1913 when Pargiter brought out his monumental DKA. This being the case some scholars are, it pains us to note, habituated to whip and condemn these passages to abyss, without re-examining them and without realising the not-too-good influence their approach is likely to have on the junior researchers. Hence it is high time that we re-examine the text of the Puranic passages recording the chronology and try to understand it in the light of the evidences, archaeological and historical.

III TEXT

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- 1. एव वंशक्रमः कृत्स्नः कीत्तितो यो यथाक्रमम
- 2. अतीता वर्तमानाश्च तथैवानागताश्च ये
- 3. यावत् परीक्षितो जन्म यावन्नन्दाभिषेचन्मA
- 4. एवं वर्षसहस्रं तु ज्ञेयं पञ्चाशदूत्तरम्^B
- 5. पुळोमस्तु तथान्ध्रात् तु महापद्मान्तरे पुनः C
- 6. अन्तरं ^Dतच्छतान्यष्टौ षद्त्रिशत् तु समास्तथा
- 7. तावत् कालान्तरं भाव्यमन्ध्रान्ताद्याः प्रकोत्तिताः ^ध
- भविष्ये ते प्रसंख्याताः पुराणज्ञैः श्रुतिषिभिः
- 9. सप्तर्थयस्तदा पुष्ये प्रतीपे राज्ञि वै शतम
- 10. सप्तर्विशे शतैर्भाव्ये हिन्द्राणान्ते उनुगाः पनः
- 11. सप्तविंशतिपर्यन्ते कृत्स्ने नक्षत्रमण्डले
- 12. सप्तर्षयस्तु तिष्ठन्ति पर्यायेण शतं शतम
- 3. The Mālavikāgnimitra, prologue, verse 2.

R

- 13. ^Hसप्तर्षयो मघायुक्ताः काले पारिक्षिते शतम्
- 14. अन्ध्रान्ते तु चतुर्विशे भविष्यन्ति शतं समाः
- 15. ते तु पारिक्षिते काले मघास्वासन् द्विजौत्तम
- 16. ^Iतदाप्रवृत्तश्च कलिद्वदिशाब्दशतात्मकः

C

- 17. ^J यदा मघाभ्यो यास्यन्ति पूर्वाषाढां महर्षयः
- 18. तदानन्दात् प्रभृत्येष कलिवृद्धिं गमिष्यति

D

TEXTUAL VARIANTS AND NOTES

- A. An alternative reading is: mahāpadmābhiṣekāt tu yāvaj janma Parīkṣitah.
- B. The other readings are: Pañcadafottaram and pañcafatottaram.
- C. This line is as corrected by Pargiter.
- D. The other reading is : sat chatany astau.
- E. The other alternative readings are: Andhrāntād ā Parīkṣitaḥ and Andhrāntā ye prakīrttitāḥ.
- F. The other reading is: bhāvyāḥ.
- G. This is "Prākṛt for the Sanskrit andhrāṇām ante".--Pargiter.
- H. We omit here eight lines in between our lines 12 and 13, as they only speak of the revolution of the Great Bear in twentyseven constellations, at the rate of one hundred years each.
- I. Another reading is : tatah.
- J. Here too we omit about eight lines in between our lines 16 and 17 because they only tell us how on the departure of Lord Sri Kṛṣṇa to the Heaven, the Kali Age set in and the Pāṇḍavas abdicated the kingdom in favour of their grandson Pariksit.

IV

Pargiter and subsequent scholars in general, interpret the above passage as follows: We have a remark of conclusion of the genealogical account given so far (lines 1-2). A gap of 1050 (of 1015 or 1500) years was there in between Parikṣit's birth and Nanda's coronation (lines 3-4). A period of 836 years intervened between the last Andhra ruler Puloman (i. e., Pulumāvi III) and

Mahāpadma (lines 5-6). During a subsequent period of same number (i. e., 836) of years, the post-Andhra dynasties ruled, as stated in the bhaviṣya section of the Purāṇas (lines 7-8). The Seven Sages (the Great Bear) were situated in the Puṣya nakṣatra while Pratipa was the king and that they will be in the 27th century at the time of the Andhras' end (lines 9-10). The Seven Sages revolve in the circle of twenty-seven nakṣatras, at the rate of one hundred years at each nakṣatra (lines 11-12). The Sages were conjoined one hundred years with the Maghā nakṣatra in Parīkṣit's time and they will be in the 24th nakṣatra at the time of the Andhras' end (lines 13-14). When they were in Maghās in Parīkṣit's time, the Kali age commenced (lines 15-16); and when they pass on from the Maghās to the Pūrvāṣāḍhas, then, since the time of Nanda, the Kali age will be on the increase (lines 17-18).

Even a casual reading of the above text make it abundantly clear that in these passages the Pauranikas view four events as epoch-making ones and they try to fix up the duration of years between them. Those events are: (i) the birth or the accession of Parikșit; (ii) the accession of Mahāpadma; (iii) the end of the Andhra dynasty; and (iv) the reign of Pratipa. For as we know, the birth of Pariksit coincided with the conclusion of the most terrible MB War, which resulted in the near-total annihilation of the Kuru race. Pratipa was a great Paurava and was the great grandfather of Paudu, who in his turn was the great grandfather of Pariksit. Pratipa's accession marked revival of the Paurava supremacy after a considerable period of decline.4 Similarly the accession of Mahāpadma Nanda marked the beginning of the Magadhan imperialism and extermination of many Ksatriya families, as the Puranas tell us. 5 The Pauranikas perhaps took the fall of the Andhras as an important event because no other dynasty of the historical period ruled in ancient India such a long period, viz., four centuries and more, with so much might. Now it may not be totally wrong to expect the Paurānikas to take also into account in this context the rise of the Andhras that marked the epoch of the rise of a mighty southern power for the first time and its gaining independence

^{4.} VA p. 299.

^{5.} DKA, p. 25.

against the northern imperialism. Now, it may also be equally clear that in this chronological section, the Paurāṇikas do not take into consideration the dynasties of the post-Andhra ages. In this context one should not loose sight of the fact that the versions of the bhaviṣya section, recorded first in the Matsyapurāṇa, 6 omit the portion (DKA, pp. 50-55) of the post-Andhra dynasties, 7 that intervenes between the description of the genealogies of the Andhras and their servants on the one hand and the description of the evils of Kali age and the details of chronology on the other.

V

Now, if we were to understand the above Purānic text in the sense in which it has been understood so far, we will be confronting certain difficulties:

- 1. Scholars generally assign the accession of Mahāpadma Nanda to a date in c. 400-375 B.C. 8 Khāravela of Kalinga of c. 100 B.C. speaks of the Kalinga conquest by Nandarāja, i e., Mahāpadma Nanda, as an event that took place 300 years earlier. This would fix that Nanda's date at c. 400 B. C. Similarly the end of reign of the last Andhra ruler Pulumāvi III has been fixed at c. 227 A.D. or, to say in round figures, at 230 A. D. Now it may be noted that the interval between Mahāpadma and the end of the Andhra dynasty must be (400+230=) 630 years or so, and not 836 years as we have so far understood from the Purānic texts.
- 2. Besides if the interval between Parikşit and Mahāpadma were 1050 years and that in between Mahāpadma and Andhras' end were 836 years, then the total number of years from Parikşit to the end of the Andhras would be (1050+836=) 1886 years or so. Again, if the Seven Sages were conjoined with the Maghās in Parikşit's time, then, after about 1886 years they must have been associated with the Apabharani, the 19th constellation from the Maghās and not in the 24th nakṣatra (i. e. Punarvasū) from the Maghās or in the 24th (i. e., Śatabhiṣak) from the Aśvini (the first

^{6.} DKA, p. 43.

^{7.} Ibid.

^{8.} VA, pp. 273, 323;

^{9.} AIU, p. 206.

of the nakṣatras) as we have learnt from the Purāṇas. O Similarly if Pratipa's reign were to be assigned to a century when the Sages were in association with the Puṣya constellation, then, (even accepting the Purāṇic details of years to be correct,) by the time of Andhras' end, 20 or 21 centuries only must have passed and not 27 centuries, as the Purāṇic passage is believed to state. This alleged statement of the Purāṇa would imply that some 814 years passed between Pratipa and Parikṣit, as pointed out by Pargiter. 12

- 3. Moreover if a period of 836 years is meant (lines 7-8) for the post-Andhra dynasties, then this period would have ended by (c. 227+836=) c. 1063 A.D. Then, have we to believe that the royal genealogies in the Matsya, Vāyu etc., the early Purāṇas, were finalised in the eleventh century A.D.? Do we find the description of the genealogies of the royal houses of the 4th-10th centuries A.D. in the bhavity2 section of the Purāṇas? Certainly not. It has been rightly concluded by Pargiter that the genealogical and chronological section of the Purāṇas was finalised before 350 A.D. 18
- 4. Above all, a war with iron weapons in the 15th century B. C. is nothing but an archaeological impossibility. Hence to allow a gap of 1050 years between Mahāpadma (c. 400 B. C.) and Parīkṣit is to assign the MB War with iron-weaponry to the 15th century B. C., and is to remain totally oblivious of archaeology.

All these points may drive us to conclude that the Purāṇas contradict not only the historical and archaeological conclusions but also the statements of their own. Or, alternatively, one may say that we have been not understanding these passages in that sense in which originally the Paurāṇikas composed, pronounced and wrote them. No doubt, a critical and sober student of history would stick to the second alternative. For, he cannot

^{10.} DKA, p. 75, n. 9.

^{11.} The Pauranikas perhaps believed that Pratipa's reign was at the fall of the century when the Sages were in association with the Pusya and Parikşit's reign at the rise of the century when they were in the Maghas.

DKA, p. 75, n. 4. It is to be borne in mind that Pratipa's grandson Bhisma lived till the end of the MB War.

^{13.} Ibid., p. xxv.

afford to discard the traditions altogether. Hence, it is but fair to hold that the Paurānikas had with them some dependable historical traditions and they at least wished to narrate to us the same in their own way. With this idea in mind let us re-examine these passages and try to get at their original import as far as possible.

VI

A proper textual criticism demands the preliminary steps of fixing the context (prakarana) and deciding the primary intention (tatparya) of the authors. We had an occasion to see that it is Matsyapurāņa where the bhavisya section was first compiled from some earlier accounts; that it was revised in other Puranas; and that immediately after the description of the genealogies of the Andhras and perhaps of their servants, 14 the Matsva texts directly proceed to describe the evils of the Kali age and to give us some chronological details. 15 This fixes up the context. We also saw that while writing the chronological section the Paurānikas originally intended to record the time-intervals between some historical events which were taken to be epoch-making events viz. (i) the reign of Pratipa, (ii) the birth of Pariksit; (iii) the accession of Mahapadma Nanda: (iv) the end of the Andhra rule; and perhaps (v) the rise of the Andhras also. From this background, let us try to understand the passages.

Lines 1-4 make a single unit yugmaka, telling us that the entire genealogies declared so far pertain to the period starting from Pariksit's birth and starting from Nanda's accession-the entire period comprising 1050 years. Because this statement is made after narrating the Andhra genealogy, this period of 1050 years would naturally constitute the interval between Pariksit's birth and the Andhras end in 227 A. D.

This statement would naturally assign Pariksit's birth and the MB War to (1050-227=) 823 B. C. This date for the war goes well with the archaeological discoveries.

Lines 5-7 make one unit. The first part of it (i.e., lines 5-6) records the number of years that intervened between the (last)

I.e. as per the Anandasrama Ed. of the Purana. See 14. DKA, p. 44.

See ibid. pp. xxv-xxvii, 44, 48, 50, 53. 15.

Andhra ruler Puloman and Mahāpadma. The number is given in the expression satany astau sattrinsat samah which would normally mean 836 years as has been taken so far by scholars. However as we saw earlier, this period is an impossibility. Now we may add here this: Because the Andhra rule ended in c. 227 A.D., the usual interpretation would assign Mahāpadma to (836 minus 227=) 609 B. C., a date which is an impossibility again. Therefore basing on the hard historical fact, the above expression may be interpreted, of course with a little force, to mean 638 years by construing sat with satani and astau with trimsat. This sort of obscure construction is not totally uncommon in the Puranas. 16 In this present context it may be borne in mind that one good MS of the Matsyapurāna (the earliest one) reads antare şaf chatāny aşļau etc., instead of antaram tac chatany astau sattrimsat (line 6), probably indicating 644 (i.e., 600+8+36) years' gap. At any rate the text as interpreted now would fix Mahāpadma's accession at (638-227=) 411 B. C. or (644-227=) 417 B. C. In fact the Purānas are unanimous in ascribing Mahāpadma's accession to a date one hundred years earlier to Candragupta Maurya's accession. The latter event is to be assigned to c. 313-12 B. C., according to the Jain traditions.17 Thus, as for as the date of Mahapadma's accession is concerned both the Puranic and the Jain traditions appear to be complementary in nature by fixing c. 411 B.C. as the date for the event.

From the seventh line we learn that the same number of years i.e., 638 years intervened between the two events mentioned by the expression and hrāntādyāḥ prakīrtitāḥ. We are already aware of the absurdity of the interpretation of the passage by taking the period to be of the post-Andhra dynasties. On the other hand, if we were to take the period to be the one that intervened between the Andhras' end (227 A. D.) and some preceding event, not mentioed in the passage, then we would be again arriving only at 411

^{16.} Cf. the expressions satāni triny asītīm ca and satāni trīņi of Purānas interpreted, on the basis of the historical facts, to mean 183 and 103 (not the obvious 380 and 300) respectively. See DKA, pp. xxiv-xxv.

See The Age of the Nandas and Mauryas: Ed. K. A. N. Sastri (1967) p. 136; R. Sathianathaier, A Political and Cultural History of India, (1952) pp. 99, 110.

B.C., and at the accession of Mahāpadma on that date, an event already mentioned. Further the earlier versions, i. e., of the Matsya, read andhrāntād ā Parīkṣitaḥ, apparently fixing the lower limit of the interval at the Andhras' end and the upper limit at (the birth of) Pariksit. This is again absurd and self-contradictory. For, the Pauranika has just mentioned a gap of 1050 years between these two events. Therefore taking Pariksit's birth at 823 B. C. or so as the upper limit (ā Parīkṣitaḥ) we may have to fix up some suitable lower limit in (823 minus 638=) c. 185 B. C. What was the event that might have occured in 185 B. C? In this connection it may be recalled that the Andhras who came to their end in c. 227 A. D. ruled for 412 years 18 according to the Puranas. Therefore the rise of the Andhras may have to be fixed in (412 minus 227 =) 185 B. C. 19 Now the present passage may be rend-

^{18.} Or 412 or 460 years. See DKA p. 43 and n. 32 and 33.

For the views that Simuka rose to power in c. 235-34 19. B. C., 228 B. C. etc., see Sathianathaier, op. cit. p. 183; K. Gopalachari, Early History of Andhra Country, (1976) pp. 31-32; C. Nagaraju, Buddhist Architecture of Western India, (Delhi 1981), p. 23, etc. On the basis of the Puranic evidences some scholars take the Andhras to be the successors of the Kanvas of Magadha. Yet, they ascribe the accession of the first Andhra ruler Simuka to c. 30 B. C. and the end of Andhra rule to 227 A.D. (AIU pp. 195, 206). By doing so they overlook the Puranic testimony that assigns 412 or more years to the Andhra rule. They also forget the historical fact that Andras did not succeed the Kāṇvas to the Magadhan throne (AIU, p. 100). There is no independent proof to show that the Sungas and the Kanvas had their hold over southern India. So it is highly probable that when the Mauryan empire fell finally in c. 187 B. C., the Andhra Satavahanas declared independence and ruled in the south, contemporaneously with the Sungas and the Kānvas of Magadha; that the early Andhras perhaps owed some nominal allegiance to the Sungas-but they soon became totally independent as evidenced by the two horse-sacrifices performed by Simuka's grandson Sātakarni I; and that the Pauranikas who finalised the bhavisya section mistook the Andhras for the servants and successors of the Kanvas, as the former continued to be a great power centuries after the disappearance of the Kānvas. A date round about 150 B. C is not palaeographically impossible for the characters of the Nana-

ered something like: "A gap of the same period of time (i. e., 638 years) will be there (tāvat kālāntaram bhāvvam) beginning from Par.kṣit (ā Parīkṣitaḥ) and ending with the time of the Andhras (audhrāntāt, andhrāḥ antāḥ avadhiḥ yasya kālasya tasmāt). Or andhrantāt "Upto the period of the Andhras" was perhaps the original reading of the present andhrāntāt²²°. On the basis of what we have seen so far, a tentative chronological scheme may be worked out as follows:

(i) Since the intervening period between Parikşir's birth and the Andhras' end : and the end of the Andhra rule : 4
Hence Pariksir's birth :

: about 1050 years : c. 227 A.D. : c. 823 B. C.

(ii) Since the intervening period between Mahāpadma's acc. and the Andhras' end and the Andhras' end Hence the accession of Mahāpadma

: about 638 years : c. 227 A. D. : c. 411 B. C, : c. 823 B. C.

(iii) Since Parikşit's birth and the gap between Parikşit's birth and accession of Andhra

: about 638 years

: c. 185 B. C.

Hence the accession of Andhra

ghat (near Poona) inscription of Naganikā, wife of Sātakarni I, who was a grandson of Simuka (cf. AILI, p. 195-96). In this connection one should also keep in mind that the characters in some region develop more quickly during certain period than in other regions. (See EI Vol. III, p. 2). If however the latter's accession were to be assigned to c. 30 B. C., then his grandson's inscription at Nāṇāghāt may have to be ascribed to the first century A. D., a date too late for the record. It is also to be noted that the assumption of a date like 30 B. C. for Simuka's accession has driven some scholars to an unwarranted assumption that there must have existed some collateral branches of the Sātavāhanas—no doubt to accommodate the Purāṇic chronology of 412 or more years (See AIU, op. cit., ibid.).

20. It may be noted that in another context a translator of the Maisyapurāņa finds it perhaps necessary to correct andhrānia. The Maisya Purānam, Eng. Translation with Notes by B.C. Majumdar etc., Ed. J. D. Akhtar (Delhi, year not given) App. III, p. xlii We can also have a converse order as follows

(i) Since Pariksit's birth : c. 823 B. C. and the Andhras' end : c. 227 A. D.

Hence the intervening period

: about 1050 years between these two

(ii) Since Mahāpadma's accession : c. 411 B. C. : c. 227 A. D. and the Andhras' end : about 638 years Hence the gap between these two

(iii) Since the Parikșit's birth : c. 823 B. C. : c. 185 B. C. and the Andhras' rise : about 638 years Hence the gap between two

Line 8 tells us that all these dynasties (i. e., upto the end of the Andhras) have been enumerated in the bhavisya section of the Puranas. We have already seen the improbability of a reference here to the post-Andhra dynasties.

Lines 9-10 give us to understand that the Seven Sages were in conjunction with the Pusya constellation in Pratipa's time and the Seven (Sapta) i. e., the Seven Sages, will be in the twentieth (vimse) constellation for one hundred years (sataih) at the time of Andhras' end that was to come (bhavye). 'The twentieth' in the context should normally signify that constellation which is the twentieth counted from the Puşya just mentioned in the previous line. This counting would naturally assign a gap of some 2,000 years between the reign of Pratipa and the Andhras' end. However, the Seven Sages are also said to have been in the Maghas, the third constellation from the Pusya. This would signify a gap of about two centuries only between Pratipa and Pariksit. At the same time the interval between Pariksit and the end of the Andhras has been just now fixed to be 1050 or so; consequently the total period that would have intervened might be only (200+ 1050=) 1250 years. So the obvious meaning of the passage in question would make the passage self-contradictory. So the constellation meant here seem to be, as per the above calculation, only the thirteenth counted from the Puşya. This thirteenth one is obviouly the constellation of the Pūrvāṣādhās which is however the twentieth counted from the Asvini, the first in the circle of constellation. We have already referred to the inconsistency in interpreting saptavimise sate of the passage in the sense "twenty-seventh century".

Lines 11-12 pose no problem. As already stated, they record the belief that the Seven Sages revolve in the circle of twentyseven constellations at the rate of one hundred years in each constellation.

The problem posed by lines 13-14 we have already discussed. Taking into account the chronology given so far in the text, can we take the liberty to suggest an emendation like andhrānte tu ca te viinte or andhrānte tu punar viinte for andhrānte tu caturviinte so that there may not be any contradiction? Now these lines may go to say that for one hundred years the Seven Sages were in conjunction with the 20th constellation while the Andhras came to an end. As we saw just now, the constellation meant here is the Pūrvāṣāḍhas. Basing on the historical facts we discussed so far and on what we are told in the text, the following sequences may be provisionally suggested:—

The Seven Sages were in the Pusya c. 1051-950 B. C. Pratipa's reign, c. 1000-940 B. C.

The Seven Sages were in the Maghās c. 851-750 B. C.: Parikṣit's period, c. 853-700 B. C

The Seven Sages were in the Pūrvāṣāḍhās c. 151-250 A. D.: Andhras' end, c. 227 A. D.

As stated above, this constellation of the Pūrvāśāḍhās is the twentieth counted from the Aśvini, and it is also the thirteenth from the Puşya and the eleventh from the Maghās.

Before we proceed further one thing must be specifically understood. We do not propose here to pinpoint these events in the above dates. Rather, here we suggest that as indicated by the Purāṇas, read in the light of history and archaeology, these events might have taken place on some dates, not very far removed from these dates.

Lines 15-16 inform us that when the Sages were in association with the Maghas in Pariksit's time then commenced the Kali age containing 1200 years, obviously of Gods.²¹ This statement

This is as per Pargiter's interpretation. For, according to the Puranic traditions the Kali Age contains as many as 432,000 years of human beings. But see below.

poses a puzzel indeed. It raises two problems. Firstly, we know well that according to the most popular tradition, recorded by Aryabhata, and followed by the Aihole inscription and hundreds of other epigraphs, the Kali age commenced in the 31st century B C. (i. e., in February, 3102 B. C.). At the same time we have been cogently told in earlier lines of our text that the Seven Sages were in association with the Maghas in Parikșit's time i. e., c. 823 B. C., and the Sages were with the Pūrvāṣādhās when the Andhra rule ended i. e. in 227 A. D. If this earlier Puranic statement is to be depended on, then, according to the formula given in lines 11-12, the Sages must have been in conjunction with the Svāti. and not with the Maghās, in 3100 B. C. On the other hand if we were to believe that the Seven Sages were situated in the Maghās in 3100 B. C., then they must have been associated only with Mrgasiras (not with the Maghas) in 823 B. C. and with the Svātī (not with the Pūrvāsādhās) in 227 A. D. Thus we find a difference of six constellations i. e., six centuries. Probably the authors of the present passage assign the epoch of Kaliyuga to the 26th century B. C. Here lies perhaps the source of tradition according which the Kali epoch was the pre-Saka year 2526, i. e., in c. 26th-25th century B. C This tradition is the main source of strength for the II School we saw at the outset. Thus the passage seems to contradict the popular belief of the commencement of the Kalivuga in 3102 B. C. We shall study this problem a bit later.

Secondly, by assigning Parikṣit's reign to the 26th (or the 31st) century B. C., the present passage contradicts all the statements made so far in our texts and also all the archaeological, epigraphical and literary evidences. Is it probable that the Paurānikas mistook the century with Sages-in-Maghās (9th century B. C.) in one constellation-cycle for a similar previous century (i. e. the 26th century B. C.) of an immediately proceding constellation-cycle?²² What is more probable may be this: It is known

^{22.} Or, basing on the known facts studied above, can we understand the lines 15-16 in this manner:—When the Sages were in the Maghās during Parikṣit's time, at that time commenced the Kali containing one thousand and two years so far elapsed? Or maybe this period of 1002 years denotes the period that intervened between the end of Parikṣit's reign and the end of Andhras' rule. The vigraha in this case may be: dvyadhikam dafābdaśatam tadātmakah.

that the calculation of centuries by the revolution of the Seven Sages (i.e., the Great Bear) is a fictitious one and not real. ²³ Hence, these differences may be due to different traditions of the calculation popular in different regions and in different ages.

The last two lines (i. e., 17-18) the purport of which had already been studied, seems to strengthen the view that 1000 and some more years intervened between Pariksit and Nanda (Cf. lines 3-4 above). Because this is repudiated by archaeology and history, as we saw earlier, these lines may better be understood as : "When the Sages will pass from the Maghas to the Purvaṣāḍhās then onwards (tadā prabhṛti), this Kali age will joyfully (ānandāt, i.e., anandena) grow in strength". Thus there is no reference, in the present verse, to Nanda's time as starting point of Kali's age. Nowhere in the bhavisya section Nanda's reign is described to have heralded the augmentation of the Kali age, eventhough that king had annihilated many royal families. On the other hand, the Matsya text (early one) describes the evils of the Kali immediately after giving the genealogical accounts of the Andhras and their servants, as we saw earlier. We have also seen above that the Seven Sages were probably deemed to be in the constellation Pūrvāsādhās at the time of the fall of the Andhras.

Before we conclude this section it is to be pointed out that the Matsya texts read the 14th line as brāhmaṇās tu caturvimse bhavi-granti satam samāh and directly proceed to the 18th line reading it as tatah prabhrty ayam sarvo loko vyāpatsyate bhrām. Thus there is no reference either to the Andhras end for to Nanda or ānanda in these lines. Further the Matsya omits entirely the intervening lines 15, 16 and 17, which are found only in the traditions represented by the Viṣnu and the Bhāgavata Purāṇas and which do not fall in line with the rest of the text in the context and hence prove to be problem-text.

Thus on the basis of the above detailed discussion it may be concluded that the Purāṇic texts coupled with the historical and archaeological researches are perhaps more favourable to the

See Swamikkannu Pillai, An Indian Ephemeris Vol. I, pt. i, (Madras 1922) p. 53; Dr. D. C. Sircar, Indian Epigraphy (Delhi 1965) p. 321.

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Fourth School that would assign the MB War to the 10th-9th century B. C., than they are to the Third School which would like to assign it to an earlier period.

VII

While suggesting the above interpretation of the Purāṇic passages under study, we are not unmindful of a probability of an altogether different interpretation: The line 4 has an alternative reading—

एवं वर्षसहस्रं तु ज्ञेयं पञ्चशतोत्तरम्

This hemistich speaks of an interval of 1500 years between the birth of Parik and the coronation of Nanda. Again the lines 15-16 can be interpreted to mean:

"The Seven Sages (i. e., the Great Bear) were in the Maghās at the time of Parikṣit; then the Kali Age, which had till then some 1,200 years (elapsed) set in.'

Of course this would assign the MB War only to the 12th century of the Kali Age (i. e., the 20th century B.C) and not to the beginning of the Kali Age (i. e., 3102 B.C).²⁴ Yet this interpretation need not be rejected on the ground that it goes counter to the statement of the MB according to which the Kuru-Pānḍavas fought in Samantapaïcaka (i. e., Kurukṣetra) during the period of meeting or junction of the Kali and the Dvāpara Ages:

अन्तरे चैव संप्राप्ते कलिद्वापरयोरभूत्। समन्तपञ्चके युद्धं कृष्पाण्डवसैन्ययोः॥²⁵

For, the word antara seems to have been used as a synonym of the Purāṇic saṃdhyā. And the Paurāṇikas believe that the Kali Age consists of 360,000 (or 460,000) years; in the beginning of this age a period of some 1000 years or so is good, conducive to the heaven (divyam); and this period constituted the twilight or junction (samdhyā) of Dvāpara and Kali Ages 26 :

- There is a Purănic tradition that though the Kali Age commenced earlier, the King Parikşit had kept its evil influences in abeyance. See e. g., the Bhāgavata Purāna, I, 7.
- MB, Adi parvan, 2.9. For other passages of similar import see The Age of the Bhārata War, op. cit.
- In this light Pargiter's rendering of the passage is obviously incorrect.

सहस्राणां शतानीह त्रीणि मानुषसंख्यया । षष्टि चैव सहस्राणि वर्षाणां तूच्यते कल्टिः । दिव्यं वर्षसहस्रं तु तत्सन्ध्यांशं प्रकीर्तितस् ॥ ³⁷

This interpretation of our Puranic tract may also, in the following way, solve the problem of chronology posed by the text lines 6, 9-10: We are told: The Sages were in the constellation of the Maghās during the reign of Parikṣit (lines 13-14); they were in the Pusya constellation during the reign of Pratipa, a forefather of Pariksit (line 9); and they were in the 27th (counted from the Pusya) constellation viz., the Punarvasu, when the Andhra rule ended (line 10). Thus there had been intervals of two centuries between Pratipa and Parikșit, of fifteen centuries between Parikșit and Nanda, and of 836 years (according to the generally accepted meaning of line 6) i. e., nine centuries between Nanda and the fall of the Andhras. Thus the time gap between Pratipa and the end of the Andhra rule would come to (2+15+9=) 26 centuries. So the Sages who were viewed to be in the Pusya at the time of Pratipa's reign could be rightly deemed to have travelled over 26 constellations during the above period and to have entered the 27th or the Punarvasu constellation at the time of the Andhras fall.

However we are not in a position to follow this way of interpretation. For, as we saw above, a gap of nine centuries between the Andhras' fall (c. 230 A.D) and Nanda's accession is an historical impossibility, and to assign the MB War—fought with iron instruments—to a period, 15 centuries earlier than Nanda is archaeologically untenable. Besides, an interpretation like this, may further complicate the problem of the date of the MB War instead of solving it.

VIII

Having thus found out the 10th century B. C., as a meeting ground of compromise between the Schools III and IV; let us turn to the Schools I and II:

Åryabhata, a reputed astronomer of ancient India, may be the first, or one of the earliest, to give date in the Kali era. He 27. DKA, pp. 62-63.

equates his own age, 23rd year (499 A. D.) with the Kali year 3,600 and he does not seem to have connected the MB War with the epoch of the Kali Era. His words run:

> षष्ट्यब्दानां षष्टिर्यदा व्यतीतास्त्रयश्च युगपादाः। त्र्यधिका विंशतिरब्दास्तदेह मे जन्मनोऽब्दा: ॥^{2 6}

Another great ancient Indian astronomer Varāhamihira (c. 505 A.D.) records, obviously following a tradition, that the Pāṇdava king Yudhiṣthira was reigning in the year 2526,29 before the commencement of the Śalivahana Śaka Era (78 A. D).30 In other words, according to Varāhamihira, the Pāndava was ruling in the Kali year (3101 minus 2526 minus 78 = 3101 minus 2448 =) 653 or roughly in the 7th century of the Kali Age i. e., in the 25th century B. C. The astronomer also tells us that during that time the Seven Sages (the Great Bear) were in the Maghā constellation:

> आसन् मघासु मुनयः शासति पृथ्वीं युधिष्ठिरे नृपतौ । षड्द्रिकपञ्चद्वियतः शककालस्तस्य राज्ञश्च॥81

Varāhamihira's commentator Utpala Bhaṭṭa (831 A. D) says that the above verse of Varāhamihira is based on the much earlier writer Vrddha Garga's statement that the Seven Sages were in the Maghās during the period called Kali-Dvāpara-Sandhi-

> कलिद्वापरसंधौ च स्थितास्ते पितृदैवतम्। ऋषयो धर्मानरताः प्रजानां पालने रताः ॥82

No doubt the writers of the School I, as we saw earlier, attach much weight to the above statement of Vrddha Garga. For, they believe that this supports their contention in toto. But from the said commentary of Utpala Bhatta it would appear that what is meant by the word sandhi in Vrddha Garga's verse included the year 2526 before the Saka era i. e., the seventh century of the

^{28.} Quoted from The Age of Mahābhārata, op. cit., p. 45

^{29.} Or, in the year 2566.

^{30.} Or, the Vikrama Saka Era (57 B. C), See EI, Vol. XXXVII, p. 7 and note 4.

^{31.} The Brhatsamhita, XIII, 3.

See Bhatta Utpala's commentary on the above. 32.

Kali era (=25th century B. C.). Thus it is clear that Utpala Bhatta takes the word sandhi, not in the sense of "the meeting point" of the Kali and Dyapara Ages, but only in the technical Puranic sense of "the first 1,000 years" of the Kali Age as we saw above. So, according to the commentator Utpala the verse of Vrddha Garga signify that the Seven Sages were in the Maghas (for a century) during this samdhi period (of 1000 years). Even the MB seems to concur with the Purāņas in this respect, as we pointed out earlier. The tradition that formed the basis of these statements was followed by the author of the text of the Vākaṭaka inscription from Hisse Borāla (488 A. D.) referred to earlier.

However the above technical Puranic import of sandhi seems to have been somehow forgotten at some point of time or to have been never thought in some regions and the writers started to mean by the said word "the meeting point" in general, and to assign the MB War to the end of the Dvapara Age and the Pandava reign to the beginning of the Kali Age. Thus probably started a tradition that is represented, probably for the first time, by the poet Ravikirti, the author of the Aihole Prasasti of 634 A.D. by connecting the MB War with the commencement of the Kali Era. This new tradition based on the misconception regarding the technical sense of sandhi, seems to have attracted the attention of the Kashmirian writer Kalhana, who, as early as 1150 A. D., criticised the above wrong notion in the following words:

भारतं द्वापरान्तेऽभूद्वातंयेति विमोहिताः। केचिदेतां मृषा तेषां कालसंख्यां प्रचिक्ररे॥ शतेषु पट्सु सार्धेषु त्र्यधिकेषु च भूतले। कलेर्गतेषु वर्षाणामभूवन् कुरुपाण्डवाः ॥⁸⁸

Thus Kalhana fixes the MB War at 653rd year of the Kali Age i. e., at c. 2448 B. C. Now it is quite evident that the Kashmirian poet concurs cent per cent with Varāhamihira.

All these clearly favour the School-II and its theory of assigning the MB War to the 25th century B. C., rather than the School-I and its logic in assigning the war to 3102 B. C.

^{33.} The Rajatarangini, I, verses 49 & 51.

IX

Thus we have now two dates for the MB War, viz., c. 25th century B. C. and c. 10th-9th century B. C. Now, we have to confess that it is totally impossible to try for an adjustment among these two dates having a gap of about 1,500 years in between. The present position is: We have either to favour one date and reject the other; or to conclude these two dates are of two different wars fought by the Bharatas among themselves. Perhaps the latter alternative is better. For, while the date at the 10th-9th century B. C., for the War has the support of the Puranic passages studied with the support of archaeology, the date for the war in the 25th century is supported by a very old tradition which is enshrined in the MB itself and is followed by the tradition of the ancient Indian astronomers and which seems to have been born out of a very strong memory of a war fought in the manner, most terrific according to the standard prevalent at that time.

Hence it will be much better if we conclude: In the 25th century B.C., there had been one great war fought by the Bharatas (Kurus). Of course it must have been fought not with ironweapons. Maybe this war had some connection with the Indus culture and also with the Rgvedic Age. In this context it may be borne in mind that the archaeologists in general assign the commencement of the Harappan culture to c. 25th century B. C. Again, Dr. Winternitz who had studied the problem of the age of the Rgveda from almost all possible angles, fixed up the date of the composition of the present Rgveda and the culture it represents at c. 2500 B. C. 34 No modern scholar seems to have so far successfully challenged his view with sufficient counter-arguments and evidences.

Again in the 10th century B. C., there was another great war fought by the Bharatas themselves in the most terrible manner. This war had perhaps connection with the advent of the Iron Age in India. Possibly this Age coinceded with the end of the Vedic Age. Moreover the marine archaeological investigations indicate that the township (second in series of the city) Dwaraka, the headquarters of Lord Śri Krsna, according to the MB and the

M. Winternitz: A History of Indian Literature (English Translation): Calcutta, 1927: pp. 290-310. 34.

Purāṇas, was damaged and submerged in the sea in c. 1000-900 B. C.³⁵ The same event is graphically described in the MB itself.³⁶

It appears that the events connected with these two great wars fought by the Bharatas were not properly recorded and they had remained in the memories and traditions preserved in the minds of the peoples of distant past; and that they got mixed up when the final redaction of the MB came to be. For example, suppose the events associated with the First and the Second world Wars fought both the times by the English men and the Germans, remain not properly recorded and live only in the memories of the people, then they would naturally get mixed up if someone in the future choose to describe them, basing on the memories and traditions alone.

Similarly, if it could be established by further researches that there had been a great war of the Bharatas in c. 3102 B. C. also, then we may have to think of connecting it with the commencement of the Vedic culture and of the Indus Culture. For if the age of the Rgveda is to be fixed at c. 2,500 B. C., then it is nothing but logical to think that this date must have been preceded by an age of development of five or six hundred years at least. Similarly the archaeologists assign the first stage of the Indus civilization to the 32nd-31st centuries B. C., in different places. 37

Thus all the four Schools of the Second Camp can be in a way reconciled. For, they seem to be talking about three different wars fought in three different ages. That is also why we find astronomical details and literary evidences in support of all the three dates, as the scholars of all the Schools claim. The Bharatas, we know, are the most important and warlike of the Revedic tribes, and they gave their name to the entire country. Probably different clans of the tribe were fighting thrice among themselves at long intervals. Each of the wars was sung by their contemporary bards. Researchers are of the view that the MB, as we

Mañjūshā: Dr. S. R. Rao 60th Birthday Felicitation Volume (Baugalore, 1985); p. 26.

^{36.} See the Mausalaparvan, ch. 5-6.

See Ancient Cities of the Indus: Ed. Gregory L. Possehl (New Delhi, 1979): pp. 68, 358-60.

have now, had three redactions.38 May be these three redactions were also connected with the three wars. But, when the MB was finally given its present shape, all the different war stories were put together in such a fashion as to give us an illusion that there had been only one war. By way of illustration one may cite the nature of Ravikīrti's description of the conquests of the Cālukya Pulakesi 11. We know that the king came to power in c. 608 A. D.89 and since that time he was undertaking campaigns after campaigns, fought many wars and won innumerable victories in the North, East, South and West on different dates before the date of his Aihole prasasti viz. 634-35 A.D. But the poet Ravikirti's description of Pulakesi's achievements would make us believe that all those victories the emperor won in a single dignijaya campaign.

X

So far we examined the views of all the Schools in the Second Camp and tried to work out a sort of reconciliation among them. Now let us try to meet the First Camp according to which the MB War is nothing but a fiction or an insignificant family feud at the most.

Kautilya (4th century B. C.) gives the examples of Duryodhana's foolish obstinacy and of the Vṛṣṇis' mischievous audacity, as if he is citing some very well known important events from history. 40 Panini (c. 6th century B. C.) deals with the formation of the compound word Mahābhārata,41 and includes in the Nadādigana,42 the word dvipa and badara in order to derive Dvaipāyana and Bādarāyana that are quite famous as other names of Vyāsa. the author of the MB. Kātyāyana (c. 4th century B. C.) supplies

See A. A. Macdonell: History of Sanskrit Literature 38. (Reprint, 1972) p. 286; C.V. Vaidya: The Mahābhārata-A Criticism (Reprint, 1966), pp. 2-8.

See Studies in Indian History and Culture: P. B. Desai Feli-39. citation Volume: (Dharwar, 1971), pp. 64 ff.

See the Arthafastra, Sama Sastri Ed. (Mysore, 1909). 40. pp. 11-12.

Cf. PA. VI, ii, 36: Mahān vrīhi-bhāra-bhārata-pravrd-41.

See under PA, IV, i, 99 : nadādibhyah phak. 42.

the name Vyāsa.43 Āśvalāyana (pre-Pāṇinian era) refers to the Bhārata and the Mahābhārata and prescribes offerings of tarpana to them.44 Therefore it is certain that the MB story and its author had become quite famous as early as the 8th-7th century B. C. and the writers believed the story to be true.

Further more. The Śāńkhāyana Śrautasūtra contains the following narrative: A king by name Vrddhadyumna, son of Abhipratārinin (of the Kuru tribe) chose to perform an ekāha sacrifice called ksatradhrti by applying the formula of tristoma. At that juncture a brāhmin priest cursed 'This Vrddhadyumna was not to perform the sacrifice in that fashion; due to this sacrificial offence, the Kuru princes should perish in this war at Kuruksetra'. The narrative concludes: "Indeed it happened as this brahmin cursed". The concerned passage runs ;-

क्षत्रघृतिर्नाम एकाहः......तेन उह [उह इति निपातो वाक्यपूरणे] त्रिष्टोमेन वृद्धद्यम्नः अभिप्रतारिणः ईजे [इष्टवान्] तं च [वृद्धद्युम्नं] उह ब्राह्मणः [कश्चित्] अनुव्याजहार [अनुव्याजहारो नाम अभिशापः एवं ब्राह्मणोऽनुव्याजहार] न [अयम्] अयष्ट क्षत्रस्य धृतिना; अतः [एतस्माद्यज्ञापराधात्] इममेव समरं [संग्रामं] प्रति कुरवो [राजानः] कुरुक्षेत्रे च्योष्यन्ते [नाशं गमिष्यन्ति] इति । तदु किल तथैवास । तस्मात् चतुष्टोमेन यजेत 45

The main aim of the above narrative is to prohibit the tristoma form and to prescribe the catustoma form. It indicates that the very sacrifice meant to support the Ksatra race (Ksatradhrti) had turned to be the cause for the total annihilation of the Kurus, a Ksatra tribe, because of the tristoma formula it had. Yet the narrative refers incidentally to a war which is nothing but the Kuruksetra War of the MB that annihilated the Kuru tribe. wording this war in Kuruksetra is significant. For, it suggests that the curse was made when the War was found inevitable or when

^{43.} See the Vārttika under PA, IV, 1, 97: Sudhātur akan ca.

See the Afvalāyana Grhyasūtra, III, iv, 4.

The Sankhayana Srautasütra, XV, 16. The portions shown 45. within brackets in the quoted passage are from the commentary of Anartiya's son Varadatta on the Srautasūtra.

the war was just commenced and was being fought. The concluding remark the curse came to be true is also noteworthy. Both these obviously signify that the narrator was an eyewithness of the war and of its ghastly results. The Śānkhāyana Śrautasūtra, being one among the early sūtras, may be assigned to the 8th-7th century. It is also very likely that the Śrautasūtra is recording a narrative that was already existing.

Further, it may be observed that in the above narration of Śankhayana we do not find the names like Arjuna, Bhimasena, etc., of the great heroes of the Kuruksetra war, described at length in the MB. Vrddhadvumna does not seem to be a warrior of much significance of the now available MB.47 Further we learn from the MB the innumerable political causes that lead to the annihilation of the Kurus. But the present narration is tantamount to say that the basic invisible cause of all those visible causes was the sacrificial offence of Vrddhadyumna. Maybe the narrator was looking at the most terrible results of the Kuruksetra war with the jaundiced eves of a simple ritualist. This attitude of the ritualists probably explains why the authors of the Brāhmaņas and the Samhitās, that have come to us, do not describe the Kuruksetra war of the MB that was purely a political context. It is to be noted that at the same time these authors do describe vividly the boundaries of Kuruksetra in the ritual context.48 It is also to be particularly borne in mind that it is the ritualists and their rituals that have preserved the Vedas we have now. How much of the vedic literature, not connected with the rituals is lost to us unfortunately, is anybody's guess. These facts do take away all the force of the argument of the scholars in the First Camp who assert that the Vedic literature is conspicuously silent about the Kurukşetra war.49 Further, seldom conclusive is an argumentum ex silentio,50

^{46.} Ram Gopal: India of Vedic Kalpasütras (Delhi, 1983):

^{47.} The name Vrddhadyumna sounds like Dhrstadyumna, the name of Draupadi's brother, the killer of Dronacarya in the Kuruksetra war. Or, is it probable that Vrddhadyumna of the narrative was a hero of the earlier Bharata War of the 25th century B.C?

See e. g., the Taittiriya Aranyaka, V. 1.
 See also Pargiter: Ancient Historical Tradition (London, 1922), pp. 283-84

^{50.} VA, p. 308.

and hence one should not press this into service in the present context.

In fact, the 'silence' regarding the MB War in the later Vedic literature seems to be rather apparent than real: There is a Gāthā in the Ekāgnikāṇḍa (otherwise known as Mantrapraśna or Mantrapāṭha of the Apastambins), which is a collection of the Mantras from different Vedic texts and which is very much earlier than the sātrakārā Apastamba, one of the earliest of the Kalpa-sātrakāras. In this Gāthā we find the following description of the Sālva people of the Yamunā region:

Having their territories splitting away in different directions (vivrttacakrāḥ), the Sālva people were assembling on the banks of the Yamunā river and were declaring that one Yaugandhari alone was their king:—

यौगन्धरिरेव नो राजेति साल्वीरवादिषुः। विवृत्तचका आसीनास्तीरेण यमुने तव॥⁵¹

A careful analysis of the language and the purport of this \$G\tilde{s}th\tilde{a}\$ and a study of the \$Dropaparvan\$ of the MB seems to unfold the following strong probability. *Yaugandhari* means 'son of Yugandhara'. This Yugandhara was the chief of the Yugandharas, sub-tribe of the Salvas who were occuping the Yamunā region. This chief and the Salvas king together fought on the side of the Pandavas and both of them were killed by the \$\tilde{A}c\tilde{a}rya\$ Drona in the Kurukşetra war of the MB.\tilde{b}^2\$ On the death of the Salva king, the Salva kingdom or republic seems to be on the verge of breaking into parts. To avoid such a political crisis, the entire Salva people assembled on the banks of the Yamunā river and success-

quoted in the Käiikā com. thereunder. The commentary also refers to Yaugandhari. Also see the *Dronaparvai* (critical Ed.) ch. 15, verses 30-31; ch. 24, verse 26.

^{51.} The Mantrapāṭha or The Prayer Book of the Āpastambins: Ed. M. Winternitz (Reprint 1985): II, xi, 12.

^{52.} See Cf. Sālvāvayava etc. : PA, IV, i, 173 : and उदुम्बरास्तिलखला मद्रकारा युगन्वरा: । भिलिङ्गा शरदण्डाश्च साल्वाक्यसंजिता: ॥

fully 58 declared Yugandhara's son as their sole monarch. Thus in the Gatha in question we feel a hitherto unrecognised echo of the aftermath of the MB War and of the condition of the then Salva politics. We may also get similar references, distant at least, in other Vedic Gathas too, if they are studied afresh from this angle. Prof. A. D. Pusalkar has already drawn our attention⁵⁴ to the significance of some of the names of the heroes of the MB occuring in the Astadhyayi, the Chandagyopanisad, the Aitareya, the Satapatha and the Pañcavinisa Brahmanas, the Reveda and the Atharvanaveda Samhitas. A student of history should not shut his eyes to all these evidences enumerated above and to their cumulative effect, and should not choose to assert that the MB War was a fiction or an insignificant family feud at the most. The fact seems to be: The wars were historical and were epoch making ones and the core of the story of wars may be totally true while many of the upākhyānas or subordinate tales of fictitious nature could have been added to the said core down the centuries by way of illustrating and explaining different aspects of the Dharma. in order to make them attractive to all the people, as Kumārila Bhatta puts it-

सर्वेषां च चित्तं ग्रहीतव्यमित्येवमारम्भः 5 5

For, the Dharma is the main subject and aim of the MB: यतो धर्मस्ततो जयः

I conclude-

महाभारतयुद्धस्य कालचर्चेयमीदृशी । श्रीमच्छङ्करनारायणाह्वयेन यथामति ॥ कृतात्र व्याख्यया गृढपूराणवचसां क्रमात् । भारतीयपुरातत्त्वचरित्रादिकदृष्टितः ॥ ततः प्रीणात भगवान् श्रीकृष्णः पार्थसारिधः । ्रक्षेत्रः त्रव्यक्षात्रपारो हि यः स्वयम् ॥

The Instrumental tirena signifies success of the action mentioned i. e., avādisuh, Cf. PA, II, iii, 6: apavarge trtīyā.

^{54.} VA pp. 408 ff.

See the Mimamsavarttika, I, ii, 7.

BY

LALLANJI GOPAL

The Bhavisya-purāya, in its available form, is an interesting text containing much significant and sometimes refreshingly unusual information. It is divided into four Parvans—Brāhma, Madhyama, Pratisarga and Uttara. Chapters 40 to 44 in the Brahma Parvan do not have many parallels in texts of a similar nature. They challenge the claims of superioty for the Brāhmaṇas. Brahmaṇahood is not based on birth, It is not permanent and cannot be identified with soul (jīva), body (deha), knowledge of Veda or sacraments (sainskāra). There is no difference between a Brahmaṇa and a Šūdra. Brāhmaṇahood depends on urtta or zeāra.

The tone and contents of these chapters are noteworthy. They are in contrast with the general approach of the Purāṇas eulogising Brahmaṇas. In other portions of its texts this Puraṇa also does not differ from other Purāṇas. It is significant that in the introductory chapter, while enumerating its important topics, it mentions mahābhāgyam cu viprāṇām as one of them. The high importance given to the Brāhmaṇas is emphasised at many places in the text. Hence chapters 40 to 44 in the Brāhma Parvan deserve a close scrutiny.

We may analyse first the contents of these chapters in their proper background.

In chapter 40 Śatānika expresses his doubt about the efficiency of the pasthi-crata in view of the birth of Kārttikeya from many sources (anchajanitasya) and poses the query as to which is superior, birth or deed (janmatah karmanafcaiva yajjyāyah) (verses 1-4). In his reply Sumantu says that earlier the sages, perplexed to note the brahmanahood (vipratā) of Visvāmitra (verses 5-7), asked Brahmā

^{1.} Bhavişya, Brāhma, I. 99.

^{2.} Ibid., II. 125-138; Madhyama, II. 6

as to what is brahmanahood (brahmanya) and if jati, adhyayana, deha, ātmā, samskāra, ācāra and karma, as grounds for differentiating between the jātis, in view of external and internal similarities, are artificial and are to be rejected. Is not the differentiation based on unspecified testimony (avyaktāgamasiddhah) (verses 8-11)? Brahmā refers to the sages the reasoned statement of the Yogin (Yogino vākyam satarkam) (verse 12). Verses 13 to 25 are mentioned as the statement made by Yogesvara. According to him when the known evidence gives different meanings, one should rely on what is being perceived, which gives a clear and appropriate meaning.8 The confusion is caused because the reference in the Vedas to the origin from the Purusa supports the fixed nature of castes.4 But the distinction between the jatis is not noticed in actual perception, as in the case of a horse and cows (verses 19-20). The difference between a Brāhmaṇa and a Śūdra lies in the special behaviour associated with refinement (Verse 21)5. The ignorant people describe the jiva to be Brahmana, but the jiva, which is subject to various sufferings, passing through many births and receiving various forms of bodies, cannot be a Brāhmana. Brahmā refers to the cases of saptavyādhas, deer, cakravākas and hamsas being born as brahmanas to prove that the jiva cannot be a Brahmana (verses 26-29). The type of difference in the body of the different animals is not to be seen in the case of the jatis. The mark of difference on the basis of work and ability (kāryaśaktinimittah) is artificial (verses 30-31, 34-35). Those, who give up good deeds, are not Brāhmanas (verse 33). Those, who indulge in bad deeds, resort to forbidden professions, eat and drink without any restriction, move in bad company, harbour mean feelings, lose their brahmanahood, even if they are invested with all the distinctive marks of gotras and saiiskāras, and, having studied the Vedas, teach them (verses 36-43). The jati of a person is not lasting; it can be lost as laid down by the verses of Manu (verses 44-47).

In chapter 41 Brahmā says that the study of the Vedas does not lead to Brāhmaṇahood, because people of the lowest castes also

- 3. Verse 13—प्रमाणे हि प्रसिद्धे तु भिन्नार्थविषये यतः। स्पष्टयोग्यार्थविषयं प्रत्यक्षं तावदीक्षते॥
- 4. Verse 15-वेदस्य पौरुषेयत्वं नित्यजातिसमर्थकम् ।
- 5. संस्कारयुक्ता हि क्रिया विशिष्टा द्विजन्मनां शूद्रविवेकहेतुः।

read the Vedas (verses 1-7). The study of the Vedas is the silpa of the dvijas; it is the vrtta which is the characteristic of a Brāhmaņa (verses 8-9). Sikhā, praņavasamskāra, sandhyopāsana, mekhalā, daņļa, ajina, pavitra, etc. also are not the distinctive signs of a Brāhmaņa, because the Śūdras also are free to use them (verses 10-12). The Brāhmaṇas are not different from others in using the abhicārikamantra and ill words (verses 13-13). In respect of sapanugraha also the Brāhmanas do not have any special power (verses 16-18). The power of sapanugraha, the brahmasadhana, connexion with Sruti and samskāra (on the basis of birth and arising from the accessories) are not the specialities of a Brahmana. The speciality on account of birth or Vedas is not confirmed by reason (verses 19-23). There is no permanent cause of difference, no difference relating to spirit or external sign. The brahmasangati is irrelevant for him who is rooted in the functioning of the inner body. The Brahmanahood seems to be of an invisible nature (adrstarupam). The Śūdras are like the Brāhmaņas in regard to the accessory objects and qualities (verses 24-29). Performance of samskāra is not important, because Vyāsa and others did not have any samskāra (Verse 30). Even in atheists, Mlecchas and Yavanas and cruel and criminal people one finds an exuberance of dharma, which, hence, cannot be ascribed to birth and external accessories in the Brahmanas (verses 31-34) There is no difference between the Sudras and Brahmanas in the external appearence or inner composition of their body, their qualities and feelings (Verses 35-43). All the people have one and the same lord (pati) (Verse 44). Being born of the same father (pitā) how can they belong to different castes? (Verse 45). The fruits of udumbara tree appearing at the top, middle or bottom of the tree have the same colour, shape, touch and juice, which shows that there is only one jāti of human beings (verse 46). People of various gotras and jātis have the same family-relations and marriage-rites and resort to various crafts (verses 47-48). The Brāhmaṇahood is not to be identified with the body (deha). The body is destroyed; it is made of the same elements. The Brahmanahood cannot be traced anywhere in the body (verses 49-57).

In chapter 42 Brahmā says that, knowing that the soul wanders through innumerable births, how can one take any pride in $j\bar{a}ti$, as no body can have an everlasting $j\bar{a}ti$ (Verses 2-6). Those, who say that one becomes a Brāhmaṇa through the performance

of sacraments (samskara), are to be opposed by logic. Those, who have undergone sacraments, do not excel others in age, power, splendour, etc. There is no difference between a Brahmana who has undergone sacrament and another who has not. Without knowledge, study, mīmāmsā, niyama and control over senses a person even after the performance of sacraments, is not different from a Śūdra. A man, whose sacrament has been performed, indulges in sin and go to hell. He falls from brāhmaṇahood (Verses 7-18). Vyāsa, Parāsara, Suka, Kanāda, Rsyasringa, Vasistha, Mandapāla, Māndavya and others, of a low origin and without any of the samskāras, became the best Brāhmanas through good conduct (ācāra) (Verses 19-25). Rsyasringa, Vyāsa, Kanāda, Vasistha and Mandapāla, though of a low origin, became Brāhmanas through tapas. The reason is purification (samskāra) arising out of Veda and Tantra; one gets the highest merit through knowledge and tapas (verses 26-31). Hence brahman is to be regarded as the sign (verse 32).

In chapter 43 Brahmā poses the question as to how there can be any excellence on account of the sacraments (samskāra). The bodies (deha) of all the people are unclean by nature (verses 1-3), On account of their evil deeds people, who do not have any control over themselves, are defiled. Brāhmanas, who have undergone all the sacraments, out-do the visalas who do all sorts of undesirable things (verses 4-8). Such Brāhmaņas are not purified even by performing hundreds of sacrifices. The evils characterising the Sudras can be acquired by the Brahmanas. The agnihotra or animal sacrifice cannot be the mark of a vibra, because it can be performed even by a Sudra (verses 9-11). Under the bonds of karma all the jivas are unhappy and do not get any escape (verses 12-13). One notices mixing up in respect of the qualities of the four varnas. They do not differ in their birth. The sacraments are useless because of the commonness of the qualities (verses 14-24). The Brāhmanas, who have all sorts of evil qualities and resort to all sorts of prohibited deeds, cannot be considered to be the most respected on the earth (verses 24-36). The earthly beings equally suffer from weakness of character and mind (verse 37). A Śūdra woman can have intercourse with a Śūdra or vipra man and can conceive. Cows, horses, camels and elephants cohabit with males of their species. Birds having intercourse with a male or a female of human species do not conceive. In respect of intercourse there is no difference in males and females of Brāhmanas and Sūdras (verses 38-45). All beings are equally tormented by emotions, feelings and qualities characteristic of human bodies (verses 46-49). Hence the division of men is based on false signs. A Brāhmana woman leaves her husband and cohabits with the lowest. Thus the concept of fāti is a false one (verses 50-52).

In chapter 44 Brahmā defines a Brāhmana in terms of noble qualities and conduct (verses 1-9). The other three varias are likewise defined on the basis of their characteristic functions (verse 10). Brāhmanahood (brāhmanyam) is defined in terms of noble qualities and conduct (verses 11-15). With a purified mind Brahmaṇas perform the ācāra characteristic of the varņa and devote themselves to higher learning (verses 16-17). In different yugas of a manuantara the deeds in accordance with the acara for different varnas and asramas succeed for the Lord himself has laid down the standards (verses 18-19). The functions characteristic of Ksatriyas, Brāhmaņas, Vaisya and Śūdras are described (verses 20-23). Their functions are divided on the basis of their natural qualities (verses 24-27). A person possessing the characteristic qualities of a Brāhmana is said to possess brāhmanahood in abundance. (verses 28-30). A Sudra with noble conduct is better than a Brahmana and a Brāhmana devoid of ācāra is worse than a Śūdra (verse 31). A Śūdra, who does not deal in wine, is a noble Śūdra (sacchūdra) (verse 32).

To appreciate the significance of these chapters we have to determine their chronological position and the date of their composition.

The Āpastamba-dharmasūtra⁶ quotes a passage from the Bhaviṣyat-purāṇa. This Purāṇa, thus, seems to have contained some Smṛti passages, but beyond that we cannot say anything about the nature and contents of this Purāṇa. Likewise, we cannot make any assertion about its connexion with the available text of the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa. We do not know how far the earlier Bhaviṣyat-purāṇa served as the basis for the later Bhaviṣya-purāṇa.

^{6.} II. 24. 5-6.

Definite information about the contents of the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa occurs in the Matsya-purāṇa* (repeated in the Skanda-purāṇa* with a minor variation), Agni-purāṇa* and Nāradīya-purāṇa.\text{10} The details in the three versions differ slightly. The latest account in the Nāradīya-purāṇa has fuller details. In these descriptions the number of verses in the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa is stated to have been 14,500\text{11}, which does not come any near the number in the printed text. If the available text is not a completely new one, the original work must have been heavily over loaded with new material in later times. The characteristic details about the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa, as given by other Puranic texts, are not confirmed by the available Bhaviṣya-purāṇa. R. C. Hazra is justified in inferring that 'at least the major portion of the present Bhaviṣya does not represent the earlier one known to and noticed by the Matsya, Agni and Nāradīya-purāṇas\text{12}

Of the four parvans in the printed Bhavisya-purāya, Uttara is a distinct Purāya, which, under the name of the Bhavisyottara-purāya¹³, is to be classed as an Upapurāya,¹⁴ whereas Madhyama and Pratisarga parvans are definitely of later dates.¹⁵ But the Brāhma-parvan, to which the five chapters under study belong, definitely forms the earliest available portion of the printed text. Its contents do not differ much from the brief description of the contents of the Brāhma-parvan recorded by the Nāradīya-purāya.¹⁶ The early origin of this parvan is supported by the fact that excepting a few quotations that occur in the Uttara-parvan or Bhavisyottara-purāya, all other quotations from the Bhavisya-purāya, recorded

^{7.} Ch. 53, 30-31.

^{8.} VII. ii. 2, 49-50.

^{9.} Ch. 272. 12.

^{10.} I. 100.

^{11.} Matsy-purāņa 53.31; Skanda-purāņa VII. ii. 2.50. Agnipurāņa 272.12 and Nāradīya-purāņa I.100.13 give the number of verses as 14000.

Studies in the Puranic records on Hindu rites and customs, p. 169.

^{13.} Bhavisya-purāņa IV. 207. 10.

^{14.} R. C. Hazra, op. cit., p. 170.

^{15.} Ibid., p. 169.

^{16.} R. C. Hazra, op. cit., p. 167, f. n. 221.

by the medieval commentaries and digests, are to be found in the Brāhma-parvan. 17

According to R. C. Hazra¹⁸, the upper limit of the date of the Smṛti-chapters in the Brāhma-parvan of the Bhavişya-purāṇa is A. D. 500. He suggests the lower limits of A. D. 1000, A. D. 1075 and A. D. 1200 for three different groups of chapters in this category, but admits that the lower limits for the remaining chapters are not known. The chapters we are discussing are among those about the lower limits of whose dates Hazra is silent.

The chapters under study would seem to have formed part of the Brāhma-parvan from an early period. The Brāhma-parvan describes itself as a dharmafāstra and mentions Śrauta and Smārta dharma as its subject matter. 10 These chapters of the Brāhma-parvan deal with the varya system and, thus, seem to have belonged to the parvan from the beginning, being associated with the general theme set out for it.

In the introductory chapter the Bhaviş ya-purāna, in enumerating the important topics covered by it, begins by saying that it describes the dharma in its entirety, the good and bad effects of deeds and the eternal conduct for the four varyas. "The frutis describe ācāra to be the first dharma. A Brāhmaņa, who has realised his self, should always be attached to it. A Brahmana, who has fallen from ācāra does not receive the fruits of the Vedas; he who is attached to ācāra obtains the full fruits. Seeing that dharma issues out of acara, the sages have taken acara to be the main basis of all tapas. Other people are also ever based on ācāra. Thus there is a eulogy of ācāra in this Purāna."20 In the Uttara-parvan of the Bhavişya-purāņa chapter 205 is named sadācāradharmavarņana. is almost at the fag-end of the Purāņa inasmuch as the Uttara-parvan is the last parvan and contains 208 chapters. The list of topics mentioned in the introductory chapter of the Purāna refers to ācāra as the first. Besides indicating the great importance attached to ācāra, the introductory verses suggest that ācāra was described in the early portions of the Purāņa. We may suggest that possibly the

^{17.} Ibid., pp. 331-35.

^{18.} Op. cit., pp. 172-73, 188.

^{19.} Bhavisya-purāna, Brāhma, 1. 71, 74.

^{20.} Ibid. 80-84.

contents of chapters 40 to 44 in the Brāhma-parvan are implied here. No doubt, the titles of these chapters refer to an account of the Brāhmaṇa and other fātis, the brāhmaṇahood, the refinements of brāhmaṇahood, the varya system and the classification of the duties of varyas (viprādijāti, brāhmaṇyaviveka, brāhmaṇyasańskāraviveka varṇavyavasshā and varṇadharmavibhāgavyavasthā), but they emphasise the importance of ācāra for all the varṇas, sometimes even paraphrasing the ideas occuring in the introductory verses. ²¹ Thus, it would appear that chapters 40 to 44 formed a part of the original scheme of this Purāṇa.

But, it must be appreciated that this in itself does not prove an early date for the chapters. The possibility cannot be ruled out that they were added to the original chapters at a later stage. We do not find any internal evidence to show an intrinsic connexion between these chapters and those that precede or follow them.

Actually, there is an indication that possibly these chapters were added at a later stage. It is to be noted that of the numerous quotations from the Bhavişya-purāṇa, which are recorded in the medieval nibandha literature, not a single one is known to occur in these chapters. This is not without significance when we find that a very large number of Smṛti chapters in the Brāhma-parvan were drawn upon by the medieval nibandha writers. This would seem to be a strong consideration, because the theme covered in these chapters and the views expressed on it are, by all standards, unique and quotable. We are, however, conscious that this is only a negative argument and can be explained on the ground that the nibandha writers were not under any obligation to quote the passages from these chapters.

On the basis of the topics dealt in them, R. C. Hazra²² classified the chapters in the Brāhma-parvan into two distinct groups, chapters I to 46 and chapters 47 to 215. The first group of chapters deals with "the duties of the castes and Āśramas, the sacraments, the duties of women, the good and bad signs of men, women and Kings, and the method of worshipping Brahma, Ganeśa, Skanda

^{21.} Brāhma, 40. 41-43; 41. 8-9; 42. 16, 20-21, 25; 43. 5-33; 44. 1-9, 11-15, 25-26, 28-31.

^{22.} Op. cit., p. 171.

and the Snakes on different Tithis." The second group "is devoted to the numerous solar vows, the glories of the Sun, and the origin of the Bhojakas from the Magas brought to India by Śāmba from the Śāka-dvipa and married to the girls of the Bhoja family."

But this classification does not give a correct account of the scheme of chapters. Chapter 2 deals with creation (srsti), chapter 3 with sacraments beginning with garbhādhāna with a detailed account of upanayana in chapter 4. Chapters 5 to 15 deal with many topics concerning women, their good and bad signs, wife and the grhasthāframa, marriage, the wicked and good nature of women, the domestic duties of women, their duties when the husband is absent and their general duties to their husband. Chapter 16 provides the connecting link by referring to the rites which a householder is to perform and then mentioning the vratas to be performed on different tithis. From this chapter to the last (216) the connecting thread is the narrative of the vratas on different tithis. The pratipatkalpa, associated with the worship of Brahmā, is dealt with in chapters 16 to 18, dvitīyākalpa in chapters 19-20, trtīyākalpa in chapter 21, caturthīkalpa associated with the worship of Vināyaka in chapters 22-23, pañcamīkalpa associated with the worship of Nagas in chapters 32-38, sasthīkalpa associated with the worship of Karttikeya in chapters 39-46 and saptamikalpa in chapters 47 to 216.

It is in this framework that additional material connected with the viata or the deity worshipped on a particular tithi is introduced. It is not suggested that the skeletal frame concerning the viatas on different tithis alone belonged to the original scheme of the text and that the remaining portions were later additions. The stratification in a Purāṇic text is determined with the help of many clues and considerations. In the case of some portions the information communicated is blatantly incompatible with the date of the original composition, as it contains details which could not have possibly occurred in the earlier period. 28

Here we will confine ourselves to the arguments based on an analysis of the structure of the text. It is well known that the

^{23.} R. C. Hazra, op. cit., pp. 172-73 refers to portions with Tantric influence.

EPurāṇas and other similar texts contain diverse type of additional information inserted by exploiting the context in different portions. Some of these additional portions or chapters appear to have a direct relevance to the context, whereas others have only a remote connexion. Sometimes portions of both the types were added by the original author himself. But, often the additional portions and the preceding or following chapters contain casual reference wich help us trace the links and sift the original from the later accretions.

The section in the Brāhma-parvan of the Bhavisya-purāņa, which has been inflated the most, is the one relating to the saptamīvrata. We do not intend to determine the chronology of the different chapters of this section. The connecting thread is, however, clearly discernible in the recurrence of narratives referring to different saptamivratas and details about them which are found upto the last chapter. Details about the method of worshipping the Sun, myths and legends about the Sun and the history of the Sun-cult have been liberally added. In the case of other tithis also we find a visible relevance of the additional material for the god or the object of worship. But, in the case of the caturthikalpa and the sasthīkalpa the connexion with the original theme is a little remote and indirect. Thus, chapter 22, connected with the caturthikalpa, refers to the story of Karttikeya, proclaiming the signs (laksaya) of women and men which were thrown in the sea by Siva, but were recovered by the sea (samudra) as asked by Vişnu and hence came to be known as sāmudram. In chapter 24 the link of the account of the caturthikalpa is broken and, on the request of Karttikeya, Brahmā narrates (chapters 24-28) the good and bad signs of men, Kings and women.24 The opening verse of chapter 29 does not have any connexion with the preceding chapters 24-28 and can be linked, without any violence to the thread of the narrative, with the closing verse of chapter 23.

The same is the case with the chapters under study. They are not connected with the cult of Skanda, nor do they narrate any

^{24.} In chapter 24 the name of Kṛṣṇa is used in place of Viṣṇu (v. 2). The presence of these chapters is explained by the fact that Kārttikeya, as a reward for killing Krauñca requests Brahmā to narrate the signs which he himself had described earlier (yannayoktam purā—verse 7) but which he even after receiving back had forgotten (prāptam oo vismṛtam bhāyaḥ—verse 8).

legend or myth associated with him. Chapter 39 deals with the worship of Skanda on the sixth tithi of the Karttika month, both in the bright and dark fortnights. It refers to the merit accruing from the performance of this vrata and in the concluding verse (13) mentions the merit of listening to the sasthīkalpa. In chapter 40 Satānika says that, having heard about the māhatmya and birth of Kärttikeya, he has doubt about his māhātmya in view of his birth from many people and then asks the question as to which is superior, birth or deed. The need for the insertion of chapters 40-45 is placed in a clumsy manner. 25 Chapter 39 mentions the merit of performing the vrata on the sasthi of the Karttika month, but there is no description of the mahatmya of Karttikeya. Likewise, there is no account of the birth of Karttikeya. It is only in the mantra, which is to be uttered at the time of offering the arghya to him, that his names refer to his birth from the wives of the seven sages, from Rudra, Agni and Gangā. 28 Further, none of these origins implies an ill connexion or low birth to cause any confusion or controversy about the comparative importance of birth and deeds. The effort to justify these chapters is maintained in the titles of chapters 4027 and 4128 which refer to the context of Karttikeya and Sasthikalpa. In view of the indirect relevance, which the chapters on brahmanahood, its signs and sacraments and varna divisions have for sasthikalpa, their presence is justified once again in chapter 45 by referring to the superiority of Karma over Jāti, thus dispelling all doubts about Karttikeya.29 We have a continuity in narrative directly from the last verse of chapter 39 to the first verse of chapter 46, without requiring the least support of the details in any of the intervening chapters 40 to 45. It is to be seen

कार्तिकेयस्य माहात्स्यं श्रुत्वा जन्म तथा द्विज ॥ १ ॥ अनेकजनितस्येह कार्तिकेयस्य सुन्नत । माहात्स्यं सुमहद्विप्र कथमेतद्विभान्यते ॥ २ ॥

26. Ibid. 39.6-

सप्तिषदारज स्कन्द स्वाहापितसमुद्भव । रुद्रार्यमाग्निज विभो गङ्गागर्म नमोऽस्तु ते ।

- 27. Kārttikeyavarņane viprādi jātivarņanam.
- 28. Şaşthikalpe brahmanyavivekavarnanam.
- 29. Ibid. 45.6-na kāryo vismayo nṛpa. Kārttikeyam prati....

^{25.} Brāhma 40, 1-2---

that whereas chapter 39 describes the vrata of Kārttikeya on the sixth tithi of the bright and dark fortnights of the month of Kārttika, chapter 46 describes it for the bright fortnight in the month of Bhādrapada, thus completing the account of the sasthīkalpa. The person, who added chapters 40 to 44, suffixed chapter 45 only to round off the account and to establish its links with the preceding chapter 39 and following chapter 46.

We cannot be sure if this scheme was formulated by the original author himself. But, the possibility of its having being done by a later hand cannot be ruled out. The suggestion rests on the remote justification for the presence of the chapters criticising the claims of superiority of the Brāhmaṇas and the laboured effort to justify their presence in the account of saṭhīkalpa.

Within the Brahmanical tradition itself there were liberal attitudes towards the varna system. The Vajrasūcī also draws upon this tradition to establish its thesis.

An early expression of this liberal view is to be found in the $K\bar{a}thaka\ Samhit\bar{a}$, $^{2\,9}a$ wherein the knowledge of the Vedas is mentioned as the distinguishing feature of a Brāhmana, his parentage is not to be enquired. It seems that from very early times there was a persistent view which opposed the association of varya classification with birth and instead explained it in terms of differences in aptitude and work. In the $Git\bar{a}^{2\,9}b$ this view has been elaborately discussed to provide a proper philosophical background to it.

Generally the liberal thinkers also respected the general framework of the varņa system. They could never think of challenging the basic assumptions of the varņa system, namely, the division of society into four varṇas, the basis of membership of the varṇas as birth, the superiority of the brāhmaṇas, with the other three varṇas enjoying a status in the descending order, and the duties and functions of the different varṇas being differentiated.

These chapters have close parallels with the $Vajras\bar{u}c\bar{\tau}^{80}$ in respect of style, arguments and expressions. The $Bhavisya-pur\bar{u}\eta a$

²⁹a. XXX. 1.

²⁹b. IV. 13.

^{30.} The text was first published by A. Weber in Abhandlungen der Berliner Akademie der Wissenschaften, May 1859, pp. 205-264. It was critically edited with notes and translations by Sujit Kumar Mukherjee in Visva-Bharati

criticises the claims of Brāhmaṇa superiority by pointing out that Brāhmaṇahood cannot be identified with jīva, knowledge of Veda, the external signs and powers of abhicārikamantra and fāpānugraha, deha, and sacraments. The Vajrasūcī also systematically exposes the weakness of the suggested identification of a Brāmaṇa with his jīva, jāti (birth) śarīra, jīāna, ācāra, karma or veda.81

The arguments occurring in the two texts have a close similarity. There are, no doubt, some differences which can be easily understood if we keep in mind the nature of the two texts Vajrasiici was written with the avowed purpose of establishing a thesis. The arguments are advanced in prose with suitable verses quoted from earlier authoritative texts. In the Bhavisya-purāņa the narrative is presented in verses. Naturally, we cannot expect the Bhavişya-purāņu to be as systematic in marshalling arguments as found in the Vajrasūci. The author of the Bhavisya-purāna, working within the framework of a text belonging to the orthodox Brahmanical tradition, can be expected to have his own preferences and reasons for elaborating a particular argument or point and condenning another. As a text claiming the characteristics of a dharmaśāstra, the Bhaviṣya-purāna could not possibly have a merely destructive or critical role. Hence, in chapter 44 it elaborately points out that all the four varyas have specified functions suiting their respective natural qualities. This is in contrast with the Vajrasūcī, which, after demolishing the claims of Brahmnahood in terms of certain points, shows that all the varyas are similar, and emphasises the absence of any discriminating feature between a Brahmana and a Śūdra. The Bhavisya-purāņa goes into great details pointing out the external signs and other powers claimed for a Brāhmana. It devotes many verses listing the bad nature and conduct actually found

Annals, Vol. II (1949), pp. 125-84. Recently R. P. Dwivedi has made the text available with Hindi translation and notes in the Harjivandas Prachyavidya Granthamala (No. 3) published by Chaukhamba Amarabharati Prakashan, Varanasi (1985). Earlier Sanghasena Singh printed the text and Hindi translation in Buddhist Studies (Journal of the Department of Buddhist Studies, University of Delhi), No. 4 (May 1977), pp. 45-69. We have Annals.

^{31.} Pages 133-37.

in some Brāhmaṇas. Likewise, it is not very aggressive in criticising the claim of Brāhmaṇa superiority on the ground of the Vedic utterance of his birth from the mouth of the Puruṣa, 32

It will be a lengthy exercise if we reproduce all the parallel points. We will mention here only some illustrative cases of significant parallelism. In the Bhavisya-purāṇa, Brāhma, chapter 40, verse 20 refers to a horse being recognisable in the midst of a group of cows. Verse 30 in the same chapter refers to the difference between the elephants, horses, cows, goats, camels and donkeys being obvious in their prowess and colour and other characteristics of the body. Again, in verse 34 there is a reference to the difference of species between elephants and horses. Parallel to this we find that the Vajrasācī³²a refers to the distinction in the foot-prints of cow, elephant, horse, deer, lion, etc. and the distinction in the male and female organs, colour, complexion, form, stools, urine, small and voice of cow, buffalo, horse, elephant, donkey, monkey, goat, sheep, etc.

Some of the verses in the *Bhavişya-purāṇa* are identical with verses in the Vajrasācī or are so similar as to suggest a direct influence. Thus *Bhaviṣya*, Brāhma, chapter 40, verse 45⁸³ is identical with Vajrasācī verse 11. Likewise, *Bhaviṣya-purāṇa*, Brāhma, Chapter 44. verse 28⁸⁴ differs very little from Vajrasācī

- Vajrasūcī, p. 141 criticises this claim on the ground that this view will make a Brahmana woman the sister of a Brahmana which is condemned by the Satras.
- 32a. Page 140.
- 33. सद्य: पतित मांसेन लाक्षया लवणेन च।

 त्रयहेण शुद्रो भवति ब्राह्मणः क्षोरविक्रयो ॥

 Vajrasācī has ऋाच्छूद्रश्च । Both the texts refer to Manavadharma or Manu as the authority. This occurs as Manu
 X. 92.
- 34. योगस्तपो दया दानं सत्यं घर्मश्रुतिर्घृणा । ज्ञानं विज्ञानमास्तिक्यमेतद् ब्राह्मणलक्षणम् ॥ Verses 12-13 in the same chapter are also similar क्षमा दमो दया दानं सत्यं शौचं घृतिर्घृणा । मार्दवार्जवस्तोषानहङ्कारतपःशमाः ॥ धर्मो ज्ञानमपैशुन्यं ब्रह्मचर्यममूढता । व्यानमास्तिक्यसद्वेषो वैराग्यं च क्षमात्मा ॥ 13

verses 48.35 Some verses in the Bhavişya-purāya, thoughnot identical in expression, are clearly formulated after verses in the Vajrasūcī. Thus, Bhavişya-purāya, Brāhma, chapter 42, verses 26 to 30 refer to Rṣyaṣṇṇa, Parāṣara (father of Vyāsa), Kaṇāda, Vasiṣṭha and Mandapāla, who though having a low origin, became Brāhmaṇas on account of their taḥas, which shows that purification (saṃskāra) is the reason. Parallel to these are verses 22 to 27 in the Vajrasūcī. Whereas in the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa the refrain in the verses is Taḥasā brāhmaṇo jātaḥ saṃskārastena kāraṇam, in the Vajrasūcī verses the refrain is Taḥasā brāhmaṇo jātastasmājjātirakāraṇam. In the Vajrasūcī the ṛṣis named are Kaṭha, Vyāṣa, Vasiṣṭha, Rṣyaṣṇṇa, Viśvāmitra and Nārada.36 Another instances of influence can be noticed in the case of Bhaviṣya-purāṇa, Brāhma, Chapter 44, verse 3137 which has to be compared with Vajrasūcī verse 43.38 Outside the four chapters of the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa we find that verse 13 in chapter 7 of

- 35. क्षमा दया दमो वानं सत्यं शौचं स्मृतिर्घृणा । विद्या विज्ञानमास्तिक्यमेतद् ब्राह्मणलक्षणम् ॥ The Vajrasūcī quotes it as an utterance of Vaisampāyana to Yudhisthira, but the verse does not occur in the Mahābhārata, which, however, contains verses with similar ideas.
- 36. In both the texts Rsyairinga is described as haravigarbha-sambhūtaḥ. In the Bhavisya-purāva Vasistha is mentioned as gaņikāgarbhasambhūtaḥ; in the Vajrasūcī Urvašī occurs in place of gaņikā. In verse 26 of the Vajrasūcī Višvāmitra is described as caņdālīgarbhasambhūta. Mukherjee doubts the reading Viśvāmitra. If we correct it as Parāšara, then it will be parallel to Bhavisya, Brāhma, 42.27 where pitā Vyāsasya is used for Parāšara and is described as svapākīgarbhasambhūtah.
- त्रुदोऽपि शीलसम्पन्नो ब्राह्मणादिष्ठको भवेत् ।
 ब्राह्मणो विगताचारः शूद्राद्धीननरो भवेत ।।
- 38. शुद्रीऽपि शीलसम्पन्नो गुणवान् ब्राह्मणो भवेत् । ब्राह्मणोऽपि क्रियाहोनः शूद्रास्त्रत्यवरो भवेत् ॥ This verse also occurs as an uttarance of Vaisampāyana to Yudhiṣṭhira but is not found in the Mahābhārata which however has verses with similar ideas.

the Brāhma-parvan⁸⁹ is identical with verses 19 in the Vajrasūcī.⁴⁰

A natural question in such cases of parallelism is: who is the borrower? In deciding the issue the relative chronology of the two texts is our best guide. But, the uncertainty about the date of the two texts keeps the question open for discussion. The uncertainty exists not for the Bhavisya-purana alone. There has been some controversy about the Vajrasūcī as well. Some scholars regard it to be a later composition. 40a J. Takakusu takes it to be a commentary on the Vairasūcyopanisad. 40b Others rely on the testimony of the Chinese translation which describes it as the work of Dharmakirti. Dr. Sanghasan Singh places its composition in the eighthninth century.40c If a late date for the Vajrasūci is accepted, then we will have to infer that the views and arguments found in Bhavis va-burāna were the original contribution of its author, and that the author of the Vajrasūcī could have been influenced by the Bhavis va-burāna. But the grounds for rejecting the unequivocal testimony of the introductory verse and the colophon of the Vajrasūcī, ascribing the text to Aśvaghosa, are not strong. Aśvaghosa, as a contemporary of the Kuşana King Kanişka I, is to be placed in the first century of the Christian era.41 Obviously nobody will place the Bhavis ya-purāņa before this date This relative chronology of the two texts will strongly favour the possibility of the author of the Bhavişya-purāṇa, or the person who inserted the five chapters in it. being influenced by the Vajrasūci.

वृषलीफेनपीतस्य निःश्वासोपहतस्य च।
 तस्यां चैव प्रसृतस्य निष्कृतिर्न विधीयते ।।

Vajrasūcī reads तत्रैव च for तस्यां चैव and नोपलम्यते for न विभीयते
 Vajrasūcī mentions it as quotation form Mānavadharma which is Manu III. 19.

⁴⁰a, R. P. Twivedi, Bauddha Samskṛta Kāvya-samikṣā. pp. 148-49.

⁴³b. Quoted by S. K. Mukherjee, Op. cit., p. 129.

⁴⁰c. Op. cit., pp. 45-48.

^{41.} The theories placing Kanişka in the third century do not find new supporters. Other possibilities for which scholars argue favour dates in the second century of the Christian era or earlier still in the first century B. G.

There are some other considerations also which support the suggestion that the Bhavişya-purāṇa chapters reflect the imprint of the Vajrasūcī.

As we have pointed out above, the views expressed in these chapters are not in strict conformity with the line of thinking noticed in other parts of the Bhavisya-purāna and its avowed approach enunciated in its introductory part. This creates a case for the chapters being added at a later date under some other influence.

No doubt in the Brahmanical circles also there has been a liberal tradition explaining the division of varyas on the basis of karma and describing a Brahmana in terms of high moral qualities. But the type of arguments which one finds in the Bhavisya-purāṇa are unique and unparallelled in the Brahmanical tradition. They would have been quoted by the Nibandha writers and commentators for their uniqueness and originality, if they had occurred in the original text of this purāṇa or had been incorporated in it at an early stage of the growth of the text. This suggests that the Nibandha writers did not consider it to be an original contribution of the Bhavisya-purāṇa.

As against this, the need for Aśvaghosa to borrow all his arguments from the Bhavisya-purāna does not seem to be likely. know that the early Pali literature has passages which criticise the claims of the Brahmana for superiority on grounds of birth and assert that there is no difference between the different varnas. type of arguments advanced by Asvaghoşa have some antecedents in the early Pali tradition. It is clear from the Vajrasūcī that Asvaghosa built the thesis himself. The entire scheme and the marshalling of arguments emanated from his genius and that is why he throws up the challenge for the critical assessment of his point of view. No doubt, he quotes passages from various authoritative texts of the Brahmanical tradition to illustrate his statement or to support points in his chain of arguments. As correctly remarked by S. K. Mukherjee, 412 when the Vajrasūcī was written "the Puranas were either not composed at all or were not old, or well-known enough to be quoted". Asvaghosa is honest and frank enough to acknowledge all the passages which he quotes from the

⁴¹a. Op. cit., p. 128.

Brahmanical sources or the arguments which he bortows from them. The quotations go in his favour, because he attacks his opponent's views with their own evidence. If Aévaghoşa had known the Bhavisya-purāṇa or had borrowed arguments from it, he must have mentioned the fact, because it would have been his strongest argument.

It seems that the author of the five chapters in the Bhavi;ya-purāṇa was fully familiar with the text of the Vajrasācī. The influence is perceptible in the arguments and terms and expressions used in the Bhavi;ya-purāṇa. The verses from the Manusmṛti and Mahābhārata, bearing on the present subject, do not seem to have been directly borrowed from these texts. In these chapters the Bhavi;ya-purāṇa reproduce only those verses from these earlier texts which occur in the Vajrasācī as quotations from them⁴¹b. This is a clear indication of the borrowing being through the Vajrasācī.

The Bhaviṣya-purāṇa further shows an awareness of the method of presentation in the Vajrasācī. The Vajrasācī opens with a pleading for relying on authority42. The Bhaviṣya-purāṇa also refers to the nature of $pramāṇa^4$ 3. Later on also the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa says that the contention of brāhmaṇahood by sacraments is demolished by those well-versed in logic with the help of logical premises44. In another context it speaks of the caste difference disappearing when examined through evidence, illustration, logic and discuss-

वेदाः प्रमाणं स्मृतयः प्रमाणं धर्मार्थयुक्तं वचनं प्रमाणम् । यस्य प्रमाणं न भवेत्प्रमाणं कस्तस्य कूर्याद्वचनं प्रमाणम् ॥

44. Brāhma 42.7. See also Ibid 41.50.

⁴¹b. Bhavisya, Brāhma 40. 27-28a=Vafrasūcī, verses 3-4; Bhavişya, Brāhma 40. 45=Vafrasūcī verses 11; Bhavişya, Brāhma 44. 31=Vafrasūcī verse 43; Bhavişya, Brāhma 44.28=Vafrasūcī verses 48. See also Bhavişya, Brāhma 7.13=Vafrasūcī, verse 19.

^{42.} Verse 2-

^{43.} Brāhma 40. 13-19. प्रमाणेऽति प्रसिद्धे तु भिन्नार्थविषये यतः । स्पष्टयोग्यार्थविषयं प्रत्यक्षं तावदीक्षते ।। सामान्यातींद्रियग्नाही सिद्धान्तोऽभ्युपगम्यते । स एव भगवानेकं प्रमाणमिति चेन्न तत् ।।

ion45. Of course, there is a difference in the situation for the two. Asvaghosa wanted to demonstrate the hollowness of the Brahmanical claim with the help of textual authority belonging to the Brahmanical tradition itself and gave arguments in his support. The author of the Bhavisya-purāna based his counter-thesis on perception and reasoning. We notice a similar parallelism in the concluding remarks in the two texts. The Bhavisya-purana says that having removed the darkness of defective eyesight of those, who identify brahmanahood with body, he has with effort restored good eyesight with the application of medicinal ointment of logic which is divine and leads to happy results46. Further in the concluding verse of chapter 44 the Bhavisya-purāna47 refers to jāti, which is clearly one, becoming differentiated on account of functions. In this connexion it speaks of the logical statement arriving as oneness of jatis and says that people should faithfully accept this inference. This is to be compared with the concluding verse in the Vajrasūcī48 which proclaims "In order to destroy the delusion of the Brahmanas who have lost all their sense, what we have said here, let the honest men accept, if it is reasonable, otherwise let them reject". In this case also the difference in the attitude of the authors towards the problem explains the difference in their expression. Aśvaghosa was criticising the varna system with its twin features of superiority of Brahmanas and its division

प्रमाणदृष्टान्तनयप्रवादैः परीक्ष्यमाणो विघटत्वमेति ।

46. Ibid., 41. 49-50-

ये चान्ये पण्डिताः प्राहुर्देहब्राह्मणतां नराः । तेषां दुर्दृष्टितिमिरमपनीयानुकम्प्य च ॥ न्यायाञ्जनौषवैर्दिव्यः परिणामसुखावहैः ।

उपनीतैः प्रयत्नेन सुदृष्टि संविदद्महे ॥

यद्येका स्फुटमेव जातिरपरा कृत्यात्परं भेदिनी ।
 यद्वा व्याहृतिरेकतामियाता यच्चान्यधर्मं ययौ ।।
 एकंकारिवलभावभेदिनिधनोत्पत्तिस्थितिव्यापिनी ।

कि नासौ प्रतिपत्तिगोचरपथं यायादिभत्तचा नृणाम् ॥

48. Verse 53-

अस्माभिष्वतं यदिदं द्विजानां मोहं निहन्तुं हतनुद्धिकानाम् । गृह्धन्तुः सन्तो यदि युक्तमेतन्मुञ्जनन्त्वयायुक्तमिदं यदि स्यात् ॥

^{45.} Ibid. 41.44-

being based on birth. Hence the confident tone of his remarks, bordering on defiant arrogance, in which he describes the Brahmanas as hatabuddhikas and speaks of his mission to destroy their delusion (moham nihantum). The title of the text as Vajrasūcī also reveals the desire to pierce through the texture of the despicable system, or else it is the needle which is being thrust into the eyes of the opponents to make them aware of the realities. But, quite opposed to it, the author of the Bhavişya-purāņa chapters refers to the happy results of his arguments.

There is a very significant similarity in the manner of presenting the arguments in the two texts. The $Bhavi;ya-pur\bar{a}na$ often refers to the assertion of the panditas about the nature or identification of brahmanahood⁴⁰. In chapter 43 it poses the question to the people who know the Vedic mantras as to in whose purification lies the speciality; if it is of body⁵⁰. The author of the $Vajras\bar{a}c\bar{i}$ addresses his writing to the Brāhmanas in the second person, saying that it is their argument or point of view. This can be noticed in the very first sentence after the introductory verse and recurs in later portions of the text⁵⁰a

We find in the Bhavisya-purāna itself an indication that the chapters under discussion were inspired by another source, if not completely derived from it. The formulation of these chapters reveals that they are different from the original structure of the text.

The main framework of the text is the interlocution between Satānika and Sumantu in which sometimes is introduced another interlocution between two other persons. In the present case

ये चान्ये पण्डिताः प्राहः

किं चान्यवपरं यूयं वेदमन्त्रविदो जनाः। प्रष्टव्याः कस्य संस्कारे विशेषमुपगच्छत्।। किं देक्स्योतः....।। २ ॥

50a. Page 133—इव भवता यदिष्टं ... । Page 134—अथ मन्यसे ... । Page 137—अन्यच भवतोक्तम् ... । Page 139—कि चाप्यन्यद् भवदीयमतं ... । Page 141—अपि भो ब्राह्मण ... । इदं चावगम्यता । ... हिन्त तिह भवता ।

^{49.} Brāhma, 41.49---

^{50.} Ibid., 42.1-2-

Sumantu refers to the interlocution between the rsis and Brahmā⁵¹. Brahmā, in his reply, begins by referring to the reasoned statements made by the Yogin (srnudhvam rogino vākyam satarkam). Verses 13 to 25 are given as uttered by Yogesvara (Yogesvara uvāca). The subsequent portions upto verse 45 of chapter 4 appear as the utterances of Brahma, after which the main framework of the interlocution between Satānika and Sumantu is restored. Though the portions from verse 26 of chapter 40 onwards do not contain any reference to Yogesvara, we find that in verse 4 of chapter 45 Brahmā in his concluding remark says. "Thus earlier Yogisvara of great effulgence said briefly but not eleborately, to educate his students".52 It is a tacit admission that the preceding portions, virtually all the four chapters, even though they are presented as the utterances of Brahma, were really the views expressed by Yogeśvara or Yogiśvara. In this situation the introductory formula of Brahmovāca before chapter 40, verse 26 and the beginning of chapters 41 to 44 was possibly due to the copyist who, blindly following the pattern in other portions, inserted it. The introductory verse of chapter 42 refers to the noble utterances of other high-souled sages who were endowed with good conduct and yoga 53.

But, we are not in a position to identify this Yogeévara or Yogiévara⁵⁴. Though we do find liberal interpretation of varna in some other texts as well, no text records, in the name either of Yogeévara or some other celebrity, arguments parallel to what we get in the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa. In the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa the presention of his views by Yogin is said to be well-reasoned (satarkam). This, at once, reminds us of the Vajrasācī where the point of view has been presented through a rigorously systematic logic. We may suggest

अपरैश्च सदाचारयोगयुक्तैर्मनीषिभिः। यदकारि महासत्त्वैः सुभाषितमिदं श्रृणु ।।

^{51.} Brāhma 40.5-

इत्येवमुक्तवान्यूवं शिष्याणां बोघने पुरा ।
 योगीश्वरो महातेजाः समासान्त त् विस्तरात् ।।

^{53.} Bhavişya, Brāhma 42.1-

^{54.} Yogeśvara is applied to Kṛṣṇa also. The Gitā, no doubt, interprets varņa liberally on the basis of division of guna and karma, but there is nothing to match the arguments advanced in the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa.

that the author of the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa, not prepared to acknowledge the influence of a scholar belonging to the opposite camp of Buddhism, imagined an ancient authority under the name of Yogeśvara⁵⁵. It is to be noted that similar attempts to accommodate and finally assimilate Buddhism in the folds of the Brahmanical tradition are seen in the Puranic passages accepting the Buddha as one of the ten incarnations of Viṣṇu. It is significant that Saṅkarācārya is said to have presented Buddhist philosophy in a new garb. Thus, the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa chapters will belong to a phase of revival and reformulation of the Brahmanical faith beginning in the Gupta period, under which much of Buddhist thought and religion was accepted by the Brahmanical tradition and which finds a prominent mention in the Puranic literature and reached glorious height in the ideas and activities of Śaṅkarācārya⁵⁸.

Our suggestion receives from the fact that the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa is known to have taken material from other texts and, without referring to the original source, to have woven it into its own structure. Thus, we find that portions from the Manusmrti and Bṛhatsaṃhitā have been liberally used in the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa. 57 We have shown elsewhere that the contents of the Pulastyasmṛti also were incorporated into the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa. 58

Here we may refer to the Vajrasūcyopaniṣad, another text which has striking parallels with the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa chapters. This text is very close to the Vajrasūcī in the subject matter and views. This has led many scholars to mix up the two texts as being one and the same. That the two are two different texts, howsoever similar, is obvious and does not require any arguing. Of the two texts, the Vajrasūcī and the Vajrasūcyopaniṣad, it is the first that is closer to the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa chapters.

^{55.} In the colophon of the Vajrasācī Aśvaghoşa is mentioned as Siddhācārya, which possibly suggested the reference in the Bhavi;ya-purāya (Brāhma 45.4) to the Yogiśvara educating his ti;yas.

^{56.} It is not without significance that the Vajrasūcyopanisad, which is a redaction of the Vajrasūci, has been attributed by some to Śańkarācārya.

^{57.} R. C. Hazra op. cit., pp. 171-72.

K. K. Gopal and Lallanji Gopal, "The Pulastyarmsti— A Critical Evaluation" to be published in East and West.

In the light of the above discussion we can say that the upper limit of A.D. 500 which R.C. Hazra suggests for the Bhavisya-purāņa does not militate against the known facts. The chapters under discussion could have formed a part of the text from the very beginning when the structure of the available text was planned. A date around A. D. 900 will be acceptable as the lower limit. The difficulty will be that quotations from these chapters are absent in the medieval Nibandhas and Bhāṣyas. We can explain it on the assumption that even after the attempt on the part of the author of the Bhavişya-purāṇa chapters the dharmaśāstra tradition found the arguments too radical. Moreover, the traditional varņāšrama system, as developed in the dharmašāstra texts and which the Nibandhas and Bhāṣyas tried to support and strengthen, would collapse completely, if the new views were recognised.

AN ENIGMATIC DESCRIPTION OF KATHÂ IN THE SKANDAPURĀŅA

By

RAM SHANKAR BHATTACHARYA

T

The Skandapurāṇa contains a few verses on the nature of $kath\bar{a}$ which read as under:

कथां विद्ध्ये द्विविधां द्विशरीरां तथैव च ।
दिव्यभाषासमोपेतां वेदाधिष्ठानसंयुताम् ॥ १६ ॥
पञ्चसिन्धसमायुक्तां षडलुङ्कारभूषिताम् ॥ १७ ॥
सप्तसाधनसंयुक्तां रसाष्ट्रगुणरिङ्गताम् ॥ १७ ॥
गुणैर्गविभिराकीणां दशदोषिवर्वाजताम् ॥
विभाषाभूषितां तद्वदेकायत्तां मनोहराम् ॥ १८ ॥
पञ्चकारणसंयुक्तां चतुष्करणसंमताम् ॥
पुनश्च द्विविधां तद्वज् ज्ञानसन्दोहदायिनीम् ॥ १९ ॥

[Skand-p. Prabhāsakhanda, Prabhāsakṣetramāhātmya 1.16-20 Vangavāsi ed; the Ven. ed. reads तु (in the place of च) in verse 161.

In the aforesaid verses kathā has been described by using some epithets (mostly with words denoting numbers) whose significance is going to be discussed here.

Though kathā has been described here as ब्यासेन क्यिता (in verse 20) yet it would be wrong to take kathā as referring to Puranic tales. It can be easily found that the characteristics expressed by the adjectival expressions in this passage can hardly be found in Puranic tales. Moreover had Puranic tales been referred to by the word kathā some of these epithets would have been used along with the word kathā in other places of the Purāṇas where the word kathā had been used. In fact adjectival words, namely विचित्रा, च्या, श्रुताविस्तरा and the like are found to qualify the word kathā elsewhere in the Purāṇas.

It can be easily observed that in the aforesaid verses $kath\hat{a}$ can be taken neither in its usual sense of 'a tale' or 'a fable' or 'a talk or speech', nor in the sense of 'one of the varieties of prose composition' which has been defined by Rhetoricians and others. This $kath\hat{a}$ cannot be the same as the $kath\hat{a}$ of the Logicians (तिस्र: तथा भवन्ति वादो जल्पो वित्पद्धा च, Nyāyabhāṣya 1. 2. 1). It is evident that these characteristics of $kath\hat{a}$ cannot be properly applied to the prose compositions other than $kath\hat{a}$, namely $\hat{a}khyana$, $\hat{a}khyayika$ etc.

After a grave consideration of the Puranic verses and the statements of the Rhetoricians about the nature of $kath\bar{a}$, we have come to the conclusion that $kath\bar{a}$ in the aforesaid Puranic verses must be taken in the sense of $n\bar{a}tya$. The expression $pa\bar{n}casandhisam\bar{a}yukt\bar{a}m$ is peculiar to the field of the $r\bar{a}pakas$ ($n\bar{a}taka$ etc.). The expression $vibh\bar{a}s\bar{a}-bh\bar{n}st\bar{a}m$ strengthens this view since the $vibh\bar{a}s\bar{a}s$ (dialects) have no place in the sravya $k\bar{a}vyas$. They are used in the $r\bar{n}pakas$ only. Moreover a discussion on karanas is to be found in the works on dramaturgy only.

There is no impossibility or absurdity in taking the aforesaid Puranic passage as referring to $n\bar{a}_{1}^{j}ya$, for the authors of the Purāṇas are found to possess a considerable amount of knowledge about $n\bar{a}_{1}^{j}ya$ as may be proved by the chapters on dramaturgy in the Agnipurāṇa (Ch. 338-342) and the Viṣṇudharmottara-purāṇa (3.17-31) and by many important statements about various aspects of $n\bar{a}_{1}^{j}ya$ as found here and there in the Purāṇas.²

We want to say here something about the meaning of the word nāṭya. According to grammar it means the dharma (habit or character) or āmnāya (traditional scripture) of the naṭas (Kāśikā 4. 3. 129). The assertion नटकमैंब नाट्यम (Bhāvaprakāsana, p. 46) also points

See the commentaries on प्रवासकरपना कथा in Amarakośa 1.6.6; Sāhityadarpaņa 6.332b 333; Kāvyādarśa 1.24; Kāvyālankāra of Bhāmaha 1.29; Agni-p. 337.15b 17a.

एकोऽहं पञ्चषा जातो नाट्ये सूत्रघरो यथा (Skanda-p. 2. 4. 3. 16); लक्ष्मीस्वयंवरं नाम भरतेन प्रवत्तितम् (Matsya-p. 24.28); mention of Bharatamuni (Skanda-p. 2. 2. 17. 51a) and Tumburu (Sk. 3.1.28.76); सुनाट्येन नटस्तवा लोषयामास (Harimvasa 2.91.26); गुणक्ष्पविद्दीनायाः सिद्धिनीट्यस्य नास्ति वै (Mārkandeya-p. 1. 36).

to this meaning. In fact nāṭya means 'all dramatic performances, i. e. drama, singing and dance'. The actors, the plot, the language used in the Rūpakas etc. fall under nāṭya, It may be observed that the characteristics expressed in the expressions of the aforesaid Puranic passage are connected with all these aspects of nāṭya. One may observe that the word nāṭya has been used in these senses in the Nāṭyašāstra of Bharata.³

A question may be asked regarding the relevance of using the word kathā for nāṭya. Since itivrtta (plot) is regarded as the body of drama, the word kathā can rightly refer to nāṭya. Again, since nāṭya is often defined as vākyābhinaya and since kathā is nothing but a well-arranged collection of vākyas there is no fault in using the word kathā for nāṭya. The use of such words as क्याङ्ग, क्योद्घात, क्यक (in the sense of मन्यकः, vide Mahābhāṣya 3. 1. 26), क्यादम्य (in Nāṭa-kalakṣaṇaratnakośa, p. 38) and the like in the field of nāṭya and nāṭaka also shows that the word kathā can well refer to nāṭya.

The reason for conceiving the Puranic matters as a kathā i. e. a nātya seems to be the idea that the dramatic form is the best of all the forms of poetry (Vāmana's Kāvyālankāra 1. 3. 30).

\mathbf{II}

Now we are going to explain the adjectival expressions (dvividhām etc.) in the order in which they have been used in the aforesaid Puranic passage. It seems that the Puranic author, not being a first-rate poet, has failed to follow strictly the order of numbers. (The words in the Puranic passage read with the second case-ending are given here with the fifth case-ending).

द्विवधा—The import of this word is extremely difficult to be determined, for unlike those expressions that contain some words denoting entities connected with kathā, namely ज्ञारीर, भाषा, वेद, सिन्ध, अलङ्कार, साधन, रस, गुण, दोष, कारण and करण this expession uses the

3. As for example nāṭyaveda is said to have aṅgas (क्त्यङ्गः, NS. 1.5a). These aṅgas are six in number as can be known from the expression नाट्यनेदकुशल in NS. 27.48. In fact these aṅgas belong to pāṭḥya (NS. 17.99); see 17,119 for the six names. Cp. the maxim समुदाये वृत्ताः शब्दाः अवयवेष्विष वर्तन्ते ।

general word vidhā meaning prakāra (kind, variety, species). Since this expression has been used at the beginning the characteristic (having two varieties) referred to by this expression must be of a very wide nature.

Most probably it refers to the two-fold dharm; (a feminine word)—practice of representation—namely lokadharm; (popular) and nātyadharm; (theatrical) (NS. 6.25).* For dharm;'s connection with nātya, see NS. 13.78. These two types have been described in NS. 65-77; see also 21.193.

Two more explanations may also be surmised:

- (i) The two kinds of prayoga (production of plays). Prayoga is said to be नाट्यमाश्रित: (26.20), नाट्याश्रय (13.53) or नाट्यपुक्तिसमाश्रय (13.50). These two kinds are called sukumāra (delicate) and āviddha (violent); see NS. 13.53; 26.20.
- (ii) The two kinds of nāṭya (in the sense of acting) called ābhyantara (regular) and bāhya (irregular); NS. 22.70-72.

डिंगरीस—Instead of using the general word vidhā the author has used a particular word, namely sarīra in this expression. It is significant. Since itivṛtta (plot) has been regarded as the sarīra (body) of nāṭya (इतिवृत्तं तु नाट्यस्य शरीरम् NS. 19.1) we may take this expression as referring to the two subdivisions of itivṛtta, namely ādhikārika (principal) and prāsaṅgika (subsidiary); see NS. 19. 1-3 and Daśarūpaka 1.11.

The Agnipurana however divides itivitia (which, according to this Purana, is conceived as the body of nāṭaka etc.) into siddha (i.e. āgamadīṣṭa, described in the authoritative works like Rāmāyaṇa etc.) and utprekṣita (i.e. sṛṣṭa, imagined by poets) 338. 17b-18).

This expression may well refer to vāc, speech (recitation) also as vāc is regarded as the body of nāṭya (वाचि यत्तस्तु कर्तव्यो नाट्यस्यैषा वतृ: स्मृता, NS. 14.2), which has two subdivisions, namely Samskṛta and Prākṛta (14.5).

NS=The Nātyašāstra of Bharata. It is the Kavyamala ed. which has been used here. Other editions have been mentioned by name whenever necessary.

दिव्यभाषासमेपेता—It is quite proper to think that though this expression does not contain any word denoting number, yet it refers to some characteristic which has three aspects or subdivisions since it is read after the expression containing the word शि and since the next expression श्वाधिश्वासंगुताम् has a reference to the number four. The word dinya cannot be explained to signify any number indirectly or figuratively.

Thus we are compelled to think that here that characteristic is mentioned whose aspects or subdivisions are named by the word divya. This is found in an (syllabic metre). The NS. says that all the vrttas have three ganas namely divya, divyetara and divyamānuṣa (18,76b-77a; in 14.91a-92b divyatara is read which should be corrected to divyetara as the verses defining these varieties show).

The view that दिव्य stands for दिव्येतर and दिव्यमानुत also is not fanciful. The expression त्रिचा हुतम् in Harivamsa 3.39.7 means हुत, हुयमान and प्रहृत (see the comm. by Nilakantha).

The appropriateness of the use of bhāṣā for vṛtta is not difficult to find. Since NS. 14.40 says छन्दोहीनो न शब्दोऽस्ति न छन्दः शब्दवर्गितः [?म्] the word bhāṣā can reasonably be used for vṛtta. Since vṛtta and sabda are said to illuminate dramatic performance (नाट्यस्य उद्दोतिके, NS. 14.40), a kathā can rightly be regarded as दिव्यभाषासमोपेता. 5

Though bhāṣā (language) plays an important part in the rāpakas(तेन दशस्पकस्य यद् भाषाकृतं वैचित्य् कोहलादिभि क्तत्प्,Abhinavabhārati III, p. 72) yet bhāṣā cannot be taken here in this sense, for pāṭḥya in dramas is of two kinds, namely Saṃskṛta or Prākṛta (NS. 14.5).

It is true that the word dinya is used in the names of the varieties of nāyaka, namely বিত্যা, বিত্যাবিত্য and জাবিত্য (Nāṭakacandrikā 3). But since bhāṣṭā cannot be explained to mean nāyaka the expression cannot be taken as referring to this characteristic.

5. This explanation does not seem to be very satisfactory. Can we correct the Puranic expression to বিভয়াপ্রধানীৰ so that it can refer to the highest form of the rūpakas namely nāṭaka which is said to be বিভয়াপ্রয়াবি in NS. 18.10. The problem of the non-mention of number in this expression is faced in this reading also,

वेदाविष्टानसंयुता—As this expression is read before the word expressing a characteristic having five varieties (i. e. पञ्चसन्धिसायुनता), it should refer to that aspect of nāṭya which has four subdivisions. The word Veda serves this purpose well as the Vedas are four in number. The proper expression to be used was चतुरिष्ठानसंयुताम् But as this would disturb the metre the author used the word Veda, which conventionally means the number four.

That the four Vedas are the adhisthanas of $n\bar{a}tya$ can be known from NS. 1.16b-17.6

पञ्चसन्धिसमायुक्ता—The theory of the five-fold sandhi in nāṭya is well known. Since the five sandhis are intimately connected with itivṛṭṭa, which is regarded as the farira of nāṭya¹ kaṭhā can rightly be regarded as pañcasandhisamāyuktā. Though all of these five sandhis are not found in all the varieties of rūpakas, yet since they are found in the nāṭakas (and also in the prakaraṇas) nāṭya may rightly be said to be paācasandhis amāyuktā.

पडलङ्कारभृषिता—The expression presents some difficulty as NS. 16.43 speaks of four *alaṅkāras* of *kāvya*, namely Upamā, Dipaka Rūpaka and Yamaka.⁸

It appears that the expression refers to pāṭhya which is said to be 'adorned with six alaṅkāras' (षडळङ्कारसंयुत) in NS. 17.98. For the intimate connection between alaṅkāra and kāvya-pāṭha, see NS. 17.135. The six alaṅkāras are: Ucca, Dipta, Mandra, Nica, Druta and Vilambita (17.106).

- 6. नाट्यवेदं सतश्चकें चतुर्वेदाङ्गसंमतम्॥ जग्राह् पाट्यम्ग्वेदान् सामभ्यो गीतमेव च । यजुर्वेदादिभतयान् रसानाधर्वणादि ॥ (NS. 1.16b-17). The use of the fifth case-ending with the names of the four Vedas and the word सम्भव in verse 16 b show that the Vedas can rightly be taken to be the अधिष्ठान of nāṭya.
- इतिवृत्तं तु नाट्यस्यशरीरम् ""पञ्चिमः सन्विभस्तस्य विभागः (NS. 19.1).
- Here kāṇya does refer to dramas. The line कान्यस्यैते हालङ् काराश्चलारः परिकीतिताः is read in the Kashi ed. as लल्ड्कारास्तु विज्ञेमाश्चलारो नाटकाश्यसः (17.43).
- स्वरालङ्कारसंयुक्तं पठेत्काव्यं यथाविधि ।
 अलङ्कारिवशेषा ये पाठ्यसंस्कृतसंश्रयाः ॥ (17.135)

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सप्तसायनसंयुक्ता—The word sādhana (accomplishing; effecting) may rightly refer to the notes (svaras), namely Şadja etc. (NS. 6.28). For the names of the seven notes see NS. 17.99.

ব্যান্ত্রগালি—The import of this expression is highly doubtful. Firstly the first word (i. e. rasa) does not denote a number and it cannot be interpreted to mean the number eight as it is followed by the word asta. Again names of two characteristics, namely rasa and guga have been stated in one and the same expression, which is not in conformity with the other expressions used in the aforequoted Puranic passage.

All these tend to show that the reading is corrupt and it needs to be corrected. We cannot read it as अध्याष्ट्रगुणरञ्जिताम्, for the next expression speaks of guyas which are said to be nine. It is better to delete the word guya. May we emend the reading as रसाष्ट्रकान्रज्जिताम्? The reading is valid, for according to the Nāṭya-śāstra the rasas (sentiments) are eight in number. 10 Though the expression may be analysed as रसाह्यै: अष्टगुणै: रिज्ञता yet this analysis does not serve our purpose. May we take the reading as रसाष्ट्रपण-रिज्ञताम् according to the view रसाह्य नाट्यस्य प्राणाः (Abhinavabhāratǐ 13.56)?

নৱমিণ্টিংকোণি—Though NS. 16.97 speaks of kāvyagunas or kāvyārthagunas namely ślesa, prasāda etc. yet since they are ten in number, they cannot be referred to by this expression. The reading nava (nine) cannot be taken as corrupt, for the expression is read after an expression containing the word asta (eight) and before an expression containing the word data (ten.).

It appears that the expression refers to the nine guṇas (qualifications) of a spectator (prekṣaka) as has been stated in NS. 27.53a (नवैवैते गुणा: सर्व एकस्मिन् प्रक्षके स्थिताः). The guṇas are mentioned in the

^{10.} अही नाट्ये रसाः स्मृताः (NS. 6.16). Though some teachers hold the view of nine rasas in drama (Visnudharmottarap. 3.176.1; 3.30.1), yet this view must be accepted as ekadesin.

preceding verses (51-52).¹¹ Since the spectators are given a prominent place in drama by the author of the NS. it would not be highly objectionable if nāṭya is said to be नवस्पणकीण.

It is to be noted in this connection that this line is found to be read in the Chow, ed. as नचैते गुणाः सर्व एकस्मिन् प्रेक्षाके स्थिताः (27.56). The negative character of this sentence does not seem to be proper. What is the purpose in saying that all these qualifications do not exist in one spectator? Is it not a universally known fact that all desired qualifications are not found in every aspirant? According to us it is quite useful to assert that all of these nine qualifications exist in every spectator,

The NS. contains a Chapter (33) on the guņas of gātrs and gārikās (singers) and vādakas (players on musical instruments). Since here there is no enumeration of guņas, the abovementioned expression cannot be taken as referring to these guṇas.

दशदोषविर्वाजता—The NS. speaks of ten kāvyadoṣas in 16.89 and further remarks that these faults belong to nāṭakas (एते दोषास्तु विशेषाः सूरिभिनटिकाश्रयाः; 16.96).12

বিমাঘামুবিলা—From NS. 17.49 it appears that the dialects of the Sabaras etc. (called vibhāśas) have a prominent place in the rāpakas, The dialects are not used in the fravya kāvyas.

- 11. The printed readings of these verses afford some difficulty in determining the nine gunas. If अन्यम रिन्द्रियें: is taken as referring to one guna (by adding युक्त: or any suitable word with it) then we get nine qualifications from the nine descriptive expressions which are as follows: (i) अन्यमें रिन्दियेर्युक्त:, (ii) शुद्ध:, (iii) अहिवशारदः, (iv) अपोह्निशारदः, (v) व्यक्तदोषः, (vi) अनुरागी, (vii) यस्तुष्टे गुष्टिमायाति, (viii) यः शोके शोकमुपैति and (ix) यो दैन्ये दीन्दव-मम्युपैति।
- 12. It is interesting to note that the Kāvyādarśa speaks of ten doşas of kāvya (3.125-126). Only a few doşas are common in both the lists.

It is to be further noted that the root वि+साष् has been used in connection with deśabhāṣā in the Purāṇas (देशभाषाविभाषिण्य:, Skanda-p, Prabhāṣakhaṇḍa 317.66). 18

One thing is to be noted here. This epithet is read after the expression bearing the number ten and as such it may be surmised that the number of vibhāṣas is eleven. But no such enumeration of vibhāṣas is found in the works on dramaturgy.

एकायत्ता (resting or depending on one or at the disposition of one)—This seems to refer to the doctrine of the supremacy of one rasa in the rāpakas. This 'one' may be any of the eight (or nine) sentiments or the Vira or Śṛṅgāra sentiment¹⁴ (according to the later teachers)—a fact which is actually found almost in all the varieties of rāpakas.

If the word eka is taken in the sense of pradhāna (chief), then it can well refer to rasa since rasa is the chief controlling factor in drama (रसप्रधानमेवैतत् सर्वनाटचं भविच्यत्, V. Dh. U. 3.17.62). Nāṭya is said to be रमाप्रम in NS. 28. 79.16

मनीहरा—The pleasing, charming or fascinating nature of nāṭya may be known from such epithets as लिलात्मक (1.18 v. 1.), विनोदकरण (1.120), विश्वान्तिजनन (1.114) and सौष्ठते संप्रतिष्ठित (10.92). 16

पञ्चनारणसंयुक्ता—It is difficult to decide the precise nature of kārana here. If aṅga is taken in the sense of kāraṇa (aṅgas meaning the component parts give rise to aṅgin, meaning the whole) it

- The root वि + भाष् is sometimes used in the Puraṇas in the sense of 'speaking alternatively': तस्माद् विवस्तान् मार्तण्डः पूराणकीविभाष्यते (Vāyu-p. 84.29).
- 14. Daśārūpaka 3.33; Sāhityadarpaṇa 6.10.
- एक एव तावत् परमाणितो रसः सूत्रस्थानीयत्वेन रूपके प्रतिमाति (Abhinavabhārati I, p. 271).
- Cp. नाटयति विचित्ररचनाप्रवेशेन सम्यानां हृदयं नर्तयति इति नाटकम् (Natyadarpana 1.5).

may be said that the theory that the $n\bar{a}_{1}^{*}$ ya is $pa\bar{n}c\bar{a}\bar{n}ga$ is suggested by this expression. 1 Or if $g\bar{a}na$ is taken as the $k\bar{a}rana$, the expression becomes significant as $g\bar{a}na$ is said to be of five kinds (NS. 6.31 गानं पञ्चिवं ज्ञेयं अ्वायोगसमन्वितम्). They are described in $32.317-322.^{18}$

चतुष्करणसंभता—The import of the karana is doubtful. If karana is taken as a technical word of the Natyaśastra, the expression may refer to the fourfold karana (करणं हस्तसंश्रयम्, 9.203; moving of hands) of NS. 9.204. NS. 9.209 further asserts that the karanas are applied in drama and dance. The four karanas namely āveṣṭita etc. have been described in NS. 9.205-208.

Since karaņa in this sense occupies a small place in the field of dramaturgy, we may take karaņa in the grammatical sense of 'an instrument'. Even in this sense more than one explanation is possible. Pāṭḥya (that which is to be recited), gitā (songs), abhinaya (histrionic representation) and rasa (sentiment) may be taken as the four instruments of nāṭya (Cp. NS. 1.17). There may be an objection to this as rasa cannot be properly regarded as of the nature of instrument.

We may take the four vertis (namely Bhārati etc.) as karaņas as they are regarded as the mātṛkās, mātṛs or saṃtṛayas of nātṛya (NS. 20.61; see the variants; 18.4). The close connection between nāṭya and vṛttis is to be known from NS. 20.21. For the vṛttis, see NS. 6.25b-26a. The four pravṛttis may fall under the vṛttis (vide NS. 13.32 prose passage).

The four kinds of abhinaya namely ängika etc. may also be taken as the four karayas (instruments); see NS. 8.8-9.

^{17.} अभिनयत्रयं गीतातोद्ये चेति पञ्चाङ्गं नाट्यम् (Abhinavabhārati 6.10).

^{18.} If the কাবোৱা of nātya is ascribed to the Sūtrādhāra his five functions (as is known from the statement एकोऽह्यं पञ्चा जातो নাকৌ सूत्रधरो तथा in Skanda-p. 2.4.3.16) may be referred to by this expression. These functions have been mentioned in Agni-p. 338. 10-11 a: (i) to announce the names of the teachers of the dramatist; (ii) to praise the dynasty of the dramatist; (iii) the poetical power of the dramatist; (iv) the relevance of the drama (to be staged); and (v) the utility or purpose of the drama.

द्विविधा-The import of this expression is to be determined carefully as the Puranic author has already used the two expressions द्विविद्या and द्विशारीरा in a previous verse. According to us since हिविचर is stated at the end of the passage it is reasonable to surmise that the expression refers to that characteristic which comes as a result or effect. Thus we can take that the two siddhis (success) namely daiviki or daivika and mānuşi (NS. 27.2) have been referred to by this expression.

ज्ञानसन्दोहदायिनीम्-Ancient teachers were aware of the fact that nātya was a powerful means of importing secular wisdom. That is why nātya is said to be लोकोपदेशजनन (NS. 1.115). See also 1. 108-112 for the educative aspect of dramatic performances. The intimate connection of loka with natya is shown in NS. 25. 125-129. The declaration that natya contains valuable information about various branches of learning19 proves the validity of the aforesaid epithet. The glorious position of nātya in the field of acquiring knowledge can be known from the Puranic statement त्रिवर्गसाघनं नाटयम (Agni-p. 338,7) also.20

20.

न तज ज्ञानं न तच्छिल्पं न सा विद्यान साकला। 19. न तत कर्म न योगोऽसौ नाटके यन्न दृश्यते ॥ (NS. 19.122); न तच छुतंन तच्छिल्पंन साविद्यान साकला। न स योगों न तत्कर्म यन्नाट्येऽस्मिन् न दृश्यते ॥ (NS. 1.116). See also NS. 25.126-127; 5.59. For a similar description of नाट्य (containing adjectival

expressions bearing numbers), see Kuttanimata 940 (of Dāmodaragupta): सदारीरस्त्रिप्रमाणपरिमाणः । सप्ताश्रयः षहात्मा सत्त्वाधिवयाज् ज्येष्ठो व्यस्तसमस्तै स्त्रिभिविनिष्पाद्यः॥ Here the masculine words namely सप्ताध्य: etc. qualify the word प्रयोगः (i.e. नाट्यप्रयोगः) in verse 941.

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF 1ST ABSCHNITT, TEXT-GROUP I OF THE PURANA PAÑCALAKSANA

By S. Jena

Kirfel's contribution to Purānic studies is quite significant and remarkable. After Pargiter it is he who followed a thorough systematic method in analysing the Purāṇa-texts. In order to find out the 'urkern' of the Puranas first of all he depended upon the five chief characteristics. These five characteristics known as sarga, pratisarga, vamfa, manvantara and vamfānucarita are said to constitute the base of the Purana-texts. The different Puranas available at present expand and elaborate the subjects referred to in the Pancalaksana-text. Topics like festivals, rituals, glorification of gods and goddesses or holy places were added to this textkernel later. Thus "Das Purāņa Pañcalakṣaṇa" — the compilation of Purana-texts bearing on the five characteristic topics is the outcome of most strenuous effort of W. Kirfel where the original texts of the Puranas have been chronologically put together. The Purana Paücalaksana consists of four chapters e.g., sarga-pratisarga (Abschnitt-I), vamisa (Abschnitt-2), manvantara (Abschnitt-3) and vanisānucarita (Abschnitt-4). In this text 1st Abschnitt, Text-Group 1, (TG1)1 is presented as the earliest account of creation where we come across some hazy and obscure ideas. present paper aims at explaining those confusing and obscure ideas in the light of earlier scriptures like the Vedas, Brahmanas and Upanisads.

Now coming to a discussion of the 1st Abschnitt, TG1 of the sarga praisarga we can say that the portion dealing with the concept of cosmic Egg (brahmānḍa) is the earliest.

ततः स्वयंभूभंगवान् सिस्भुविविधाः प्रजाः। अप एव ससर्जादी, तासु वीयंमवासृजत् ॥१०॥ आपो नरा इति प्रोका, आपो वै नरसूनवः। अयनं तस्य ताः पूर्वं, तेन नारायणः स्मृतः ॥१॥

 TGI is constituted of Agni Purana 17.6-17; Brahma Purana 1.31-56, Harivamsa 27-53 (Calcutta Edition, 1834-39) and Siva Purana (Dharma Samhita) 51.3-28. हिरण्यवर्णमभवत् तदण्डमुदकेशयम् । तत्र जज्ञे स्वयं ब्रह्मा स्वयंभूरिति नः श्रुतम् ॥12॥ हिरण्यगभों भगवान् उषित्वा परिवत्सरम् । तदण्डमकरोद् द्वैषं, दिवं भृवमधापि च ॥13॥ तयोः शकलयोरमंध्य आकाशममृजत् प्रभुः । अप्मु परिप्लवां पृथ्वीं दिशश्च दशधा दथे॥14॥ तत्र कालं मनो वाचं कामं क्रोधमधो रितम् । ससजं मृष्टि तदूपां स्रष्टुमिच्छन् प्रजापतिः॥15॥

- 10. Then the self-born Lord desirous of producing beings of many kinds first of all, created the waters, and placed his seed in them.
- 11. The waters are the offspring of Nara, hence they are rightly called $n\bar{a}r\bar{a}h$. As they were his first residence (ayana), therefore he is named $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$.
- 12. That seed floating in the waters became a golden egg; from that egg Brahmā had his birth, that Brahmā who is otherwise famous as Svayambhū.
- 13. For a whole year the divine one resided in that egg, then he divided that egg into two parts—heaven and earth.
- 14. And in between these two halves the Lord created the ether. He stablised the earth floating in the water, the ten quarters were differentiated in clear and distinct manner.
- 15. Prajapati, desirous of creating, created the mind, the speech, love and anger and the sexual delight.

In the Rgveda, the most ancient text of Indo-Aryan literature very often we come across the accounts of creation. The Nāsadiya Sūkta RV. X. 129 depicts the primal state before creation. There was darkness pervaded by darkness; in the beginning all this was an undistinguishable mass of water. "Apraketam salilam" referred to here and as interpreted by Geldner does not mean water as the first creation, but it speaks of the chaotic situation prevailing at the time before the creation started. Out of that undistinguishable mass of water that one (tad ekam) already present there, emerged in the shape of a seed. In the Prajāpati hymn RV. X. 121.7 the

Rigredic seer speaks of the mighty waters which contained the universal germ (आपो ह यद् बृहतीविंदवमायन् गम् वर्षांना जनयन्तीरग्निम्)

The primal being which remained unmanifested in the primal waters comes out of them as Hiranyagarbha, the golden embryo. The same idea recurs in Taittiriya Samhitā 5.6.4.2: 5.7.5 3; 7.1.5.1; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa 1.1.3.5; 2.2.9.3 and Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa XI. 1.6.1. "आपो वा इदमग्ने सिल्लमासीत्". In RV. X. 82.1 "चहुं पः पिता मनेषा हि धीरो चृतमें ने अजनन्तमम्मामों Geldner says that in place of water here "ghrta" appears as the primal matter. In the beginning the world was just fluid (ghrta) before it took up solid form and size.

Thus we see in the philosophical hymns of the Rgueda that in the beginning there were just the primeval waters, and the sole entity (tad ekan) which is designated as the germ lay covered by the husk. And this germ was born by the power of tapas. But here the Purana-texts give a turn to the idea. The self-born Lord creates the waters, but without proceeding for the creation of the world of names and forms the Lord effuses his semen in the waters. The waters have fertilising power and the semen takes the form of a golden egg from which the self-born Lord is born.

In RV.X. 129 the sole primal being lies hidden in the husk as a living germ and again comes forth from that as the first-born through the power of tapas. In RV.X, 121 the same primal being who remains unmanifested in the primal waters, comes out of it as Hiranyagarbha. Here we find the concept of the cosmic egg. The sole entity (tad ekam) lies hidden in the empty shell as the vital energy and it is hatched, it comes forth by the power of tapas. The origin of the manifested universe out of the primal unitary being is just like a bird coming forth from an egg. As the egg is hatched by incubational heat, here also the cosmic egg is made to bring forth by means of heat. But the only difference here is that in case of the cosmic egg (brahmānḍa) there are not two entities, but one; the brooder and the hatched forth young are one and the same. Thus here we notice the two aspects of the primal being as the sole creator and as the first created. In similar manner in the Pañcalaksana text the self-born Lord through his semen takes the form of an egg and from that egg the same self-born Lord is born to start the creation of the world. In this connection we may refer to Puruṣa-sūkta X.90.5 तस्मीद् विराड् अजायत विराजो अधि पूरु वः" from the primal being puruṣa Virāj is born and from Virāj is born Puruṣa.

After the birth of self-born Lord Brahmā from the egg he continued to reside in that egg for a year, then he divided the egg into two parts—heaven and earth.

This concept of the sole entity (tad ekam) residing in the egg and dividing the egg into two parts goes back to the age of the Upanişads. In Chāndogya Upanişad (3.19) the non-existent (asat) becomes Existent (sat), the latter changes into an egg; after a year by splitting into two it becomes heaven and earth.

Verse 11 of the Purāṇa Pañcalakṣaṇa text which explains the name Nārāṇaṇa is no doubt an interpolation here.² It interrupts the continuity of the narration. It recurs in Epic and Purāṇic literature at various places. Originally it might have had an independent existence, but here it has been inserted by a devotee of Nārāṇaṇa who wants to identify the creator with his god, just as later redactors of Purāṇa texts identify him with Viṣṇu or Śiva.

विद्युतोऽज्ञानिमेघांश्च रोहितेन्द्रधनूषि च। वयांसि च ससर्जादौ पर्जन्यं च ससर्जं ह।। २१।। ऋचो यजूषि सामानि निर्ममे यज्ञसिद्धये,। साध्यास्तैरयजन् देवान्, इत्येवमनुशुश्रुम।। २२।। उच्चावचानि भूतानि गात्रेभ्यस्तस्य जज्ञिरे। आपवस्य प्रजासर्गं सृजतो हि प्रजापतेः॥ २३।।

- 21. From the lightning the creator created the cloud, the thunderbolt and the rain-bow; in the beginning He created the birds and the god Parjanya.
- 22. For successful performance of the sacrifice the creator created Rcas, Yajus and the Sāma-hymns. With the help of these Rcas etc. the Sādhyas offered sacrifice in honour of the gods.
- 23. From the body of the creator who manifested himself in the waters (āþavasya prajāpateḥ) were born beings both high and low.
 - 2. Hacker, Paul, "Two accounts of Cosmogony", Jäänamuktävali (Commemoration Volume in honour of Johannes Nobel), pp. 78.

After creating the haven and earth referred to above the Lord creates the cloud, the thunderbolt, rain-bow, birds and etc. He also creates the Rcas, Yajus and Sāma-hymns. The RV.X.90 (Puruṣasūkta) speaks of the sacrifice of the thousand-headed Puruṣa and from the different parts of this Puruṣa are born Rcas, Yajus and Sāma-hymns, horses, cattle, goats and sheep. Of course in the 1st Abschnitt, TGI verses 21-23 of sarga pratisarga we do not get an exact parallel to the account of creation as given in the Puruṣasūkta. The Pañcalakṣaṇa text has substituted different objects like the cloud, the rainbow, the birds etc., but in verses 22-23 ab we can clearly notice the influence of the Rgvedic hymn X.90.

Creation of the mind-born sons :-

मरीचिमञ्चिङ्गरसौ पुलस्त्यं पुलल्हं ऋतुम् । विसष्टं च महातेजाः सोऽस् जत् सस मानसान् ॥ १६ ॥ सप्त ब्रह्माण इत्येते पुराणे निश्चयं गताः । नारायणात्मकानां वे सप्तानां ब्रह्माजन्मनाम् ॥ १७ ॥ वतोऽस् जत् पुनर्बह्मा रुद्धं रोषात्मसंभवम् । सनत्कुमारं च विभुं पूर्वेषामपि पूर्वजम् ॥ १८ ॥ सप्तेते जनयन्ति स्म प्रजा, रुद्धश्च भो द्विजाः । अतः सनत्कुमारश्च तेजः संक्षिप्य तिष्ठतः ॥ १९ ॥ वेषां सप्त महावंशा दिव्या देवगणान्विताः । क्रियावन्तः प्रजावन्तो ॥ २० ॥

- The self-born Lord created the seven mind-born sons— Marīci, Atri, Angiras, Pulastya, Pulaha, Kratu and the illustrious Vasistha.
- 17. They have been termed as the seven Brahmās in the Purāņas. These seven mind-born sons of Brahmā are devoted to Lord Nārāyaņa.
- Brahmā again created Rudra arising from his anger, he also created the sage Sanatkumāra, the first born of all.
- These seven mind-born sons and Rudra produced creatures, but Sanatkumära with his senses under control remains detached from creation.

20. From them (the seven sages) originated seven great divine races with gods included in them. The great sages added to the glory and honour of these divine races which became active through the birth of offspring.

The concept of 'seven seers' goes back to the Rgveda. The Rgvedic seer Trasadasyu Paurukutsya speaks of 'seven seers' as our father—(अस्माक्रमत्रे पित्रस्त शासन्त सुम ऋष्यो RV. IV. 42.8) In RV.X. 130.7 the Rgvedic seer Yajña Prājāpatya speaks of the "seven seers" as divine (ऋष्य: सुम देव्या:). The seven ancient seers are also associated with the gods in RV.X.109.4. The text Satapatha Brāhmaņa refers to the seven sages on three different occasions (8.4.3.6, 9.3.1. 21 & 13.5.4.5) without referring to their individual names. Likewise the Sānkhāyana Brāhmaņa (27.6) and Gopatha Brāhmaņa (1.3.12) speak of the seven sages. The Brhadāranyaka Upanisad though referring to the seven sages brings a change in their names. As per this text (2.2.6) they are Gautama, Bharadvāja, Viśvāmitra, Jamadgni, Jasiṣṭha, Kaśyapa and Atri.

सृज्यमानाः प्रजा नैव विवर्धन्ते यदा, तदा। द्विधा कृत्वात्मनो देहमधेन पुरुषोऽभवत्,॥ २४॥ अर्धेन नारी, तस्यां स ससृजे विविधाः प्रजाः। दिवं च पृथिवीं चैव महिम्ना व्याप्य तिष्ठति॥ २५॥

The seven mind-born sons produced offsprings but when they did not multiply, the Lord divided his body into two halves—one half male and the other half female. Through the union of this male and female parts the Lord, the creator created the different beings. This idea of the creator dividing his body into male and female goes back to the age of the Upanişads.

In Brhadāranyaka Upanisad (1.4) we are told that the Átman alone existed in the beginning. He had no delight, because he was alone. He desired a second. He was as large as a woman and a man closely embraced (यया स्त्रीपुमांसी संपरिष्वस्ती). He thereupon split himself into two parts—male and female. He copulated with her. Therefore human beings were produced. When the female noticed that the male was her generator and yet her lover, she transformed herself into a cow to hide from him, whereupon her divine partner became a bull; the woman then became a mare, while the male became a horse; she became a she-goat, the other a he-goat,

finally a ewe, when the other became a ram. It was thus, that all the goats and sheep and all things that exist in pairs down to the ants were born.

This Upanisadic idea of primal self dividing his body into two parts, male and female and creating all the biped and quadruped beings takes a different turn in the Pañcalakṣaṇa text. With the development of the concept of Hindu theology the authors of the Purāṇa-texts did not like to present the idea of the self co-habiting with his own half. Their abhorence of this concept is clearly marked when the Self (Ātman) is replaced by the Lord. It is not the primal self but the Lord, the creator who divides his body into male and female and by the union of these male and female parts all the animate beings are born. Here we notice that the Puranic account though maintaining the Vedic tradition brings in significant changes in the accounts of creation.

विराजमसृजद् विष्णुः, सोऽसृजत् पुरुषं विराट् । पुरुषं तं मनुं विद्यात्, तस्य मन्वन्तरं स्मृतम् ॥26॥

In this verse the purua Manu is created by Virāj and Virāj emanates from Viṣṇu. We clearly notice here the influences of RV. X. 90.5. "ন্দোৰ্ বিষ্টু জাঘাৰ ভিষ্টু জড়ি ঘুই'' but the illogical feature of both Puruṣa and Virāj mutually producing each other has been eliminated in the Purāṇa Pañcalakṣaṇa when the text speaks of Virāj producing Manu. There is mention of this Manu only once in the TGl. And his birth is referred to after the creation of all other creatures. This verse is also lacking in the Agni Purāṇa and it calls the Greator Viṣṇu, a name not occurring in the rest of narration. So from all these points there is the Iscast doubt that verse 26 is a later addition.

Thus in this earliest Text-group we come across four accounts of creation in a nutshell. And all these accounts of creation-i. e., the Cosmic Egg theory, the origin of all beings from the great Puruşa (as stated in Puruşa stikta), the creation of seven mind-born sons and the division of Puruşa's body into male and female—go back to the Veda and Upanişad period. Prior to the age of Puranas these were the different theories prevailing in the Veda and Upanişad period explaining the origin of things and

^{3.} Vide Hacker, Paul, Op. cit., p. 85.

beings on earth. In the Puranic age the Sankhya theory of creation gained ascendancy over other theories. According to this theory Purusa and Prakrti are the two foremost principles from whom Mahat comes into being. From Mahat there arises Ahamkāra and from Ahamkara this world of names and forms has its origin. The verses 3 and 5 of this TG1 are quite suggestive of the fact that they have been inserted by a redactor who wanted to modernise the text with the help of a few Sānkhya ideas. The first nine verses of Abschnitt I, TG1 contain a statement of the subject, a Sravanaphala and a namaskāra, but these topics are curiosly interrupted by the verses 3 and 5 which express cosmogonic ideas that have no bearing on the main narration starting with v. 10. Hence it is obvious that these verses are interpolations made by a redactor with Sāmkhya leaning and it is done keeping in view the preponderance of this theory in Puranic age. As Hacker rightly observes, "All this leads to the conclusion that the original text of TGI did not contain any Sānkhya ideas. The redactor apparently did not find a suitable place for his additions in the main account for it would be difficult to harmonize the emanation from the Ahankāra with the myth of the Cosmic Egg, so he inserted the two verses into the introduction."4

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^{4.} Hacker, Paul, Op. cit., p. 78.

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PAÑCALÂNGALA VRATA

BY

MRS. KALA D. ACHARYA

Purāṇic religion is full of vows (vratas). Some of the vratas like Āmalakyekādasī, Gayesacaturthī are observed even today but as Kane P. V. has pointed out, "Many of the vratas and utsavas once observed have already gone out of vogue owing to various causes."

One of such vratas is Pañcalāngala vrata. It is described at length in the Matsya-purāṇa. The same vrata is described in the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa (Bh. P.) as Halapankti-dānam.

According to the *vrata* as mentioned in the Mat. P. on a holy *tithi* or eclipse or Yugādi *tithi* land along with five ploughs made of hard wood and five golden ploughs and ten bulls, all these are to be donated.

It is narrated in the Bh. P. that the row of the ploughs to be given should be that of ten ploughs. Four cows should be yoked to each plough. The plough should be made of wood. The ploughs should have strips of gold. They should be decorated with diamond, The bulls yoked to the ploughs should be young and strong. They should not be handicapped. They should be decorated with garments, gold, flowers and sandal-wood pigment.

The bulls should be joined to the yoke. A long whip should be made. A village or a town or land as much as two thousand rods should be given for ploughing. Land equal to one thousand rods may also be given.⁴

The gift should be made on the eighth or the fourteenth day of each half of the month and the days of full moon and new moon. It may be made on the full-moon day in the month of

^{1.} Kane P. V., History of Dharmatāstra Vol. I, Ch. XIII p. 254.

^{2.} Mat. P., Chap. 283.

^{3.} Bh. P., Uttara Parvan, 166.

^{4.} Ib. 3-6 ab.

Kārttika or Vaišākha. It may be given at the sun's movement towards the north. It should also be given on januarksa or on the day of eclipse. Brahmins well-versed in the Vedas should be invited. Their number should be equal to the number of ploughs. A pavilion as much as ten hastas should be made. In the east two holes or one hole should be made in the ground. A sacrifice reciting vyāhrtis should be performed there. The sacrifice to Parjanya, Aditya and Rudra should be made. Dish of cooked rice, milk and sugar should be used for sacrifice. Holy tree-twigs for the sacred fire should be that of the Palāsa tree. Ghee and black sesame should be used. The row of the ploughs with corn in it should be consecrated. Then the host should take a bath, He should wear white garments. He should yoke the row of the ploughs amidst the sounds of trumpets and the conch-shells. Vedas should be recited. With flowers in his hands the host should utter the sacred prayer, viz. "As all the gods stay in the ploughs always and as they are near the shoulder of a bull, I should always remain a devotee of Siva. As other gifts are not so important as the gift of land and as I have made it, I should always be faithful to dharma".5 Then the brahmins should drive the row of the ploughs and behind the plough the host should stay and give seeds, jewels, gold and silver in the hands of the brahmins,6 till they have crossed twenty rods of land. Then he should make a circumambulation and bestow the gift upon the brahmin along with daksinā. The brahmins should be saluted and then the host should bid goodbye to them.

It is stated in the Bh. P. that one who makes the said gift lives in heaven. He does not suffer from poverty, bad luck or diseases for seven successive births. Then he becomes a king. Even the spectator of the gift becomes free from his sins. The gift of the row of the ploughs was made by many kings such as Dilipa, Yayati, Sibi and Bharata. As a result of the gift they still stay in the heaven happily. Kṛṣṇa has stated that even women can make the gift. If a row of ploughs is not available

^{5.} Ib. 16-17.

^{6.} Ib. 18-19.

^{7.} Tb. 21-22.

^{·8.} Ib. 24.

then five or four ploughs may be given. Even one plough may be given according to the ritual. It is finally stated that the givers of the ploughs live in Sankarapura and those who give the row of ploughs along with land become kings. Kṛṣṇa has pointed out that the gift of a row of ploughs destroys all sins. It gives happiness. This gift gives the fruit of making all other gifts. The giver of a row of ploughs is equal to one who has made all the gifts.

One may wonder whether such vratas using enormous quantity of gold were actually in practice. But such types of vratas go under mahādānas and Inden Ronald has pointed out that "These gifte were of immense significance because they were used by the regional Hindu kings to establish (or renew) their universal imperial sovereignty. Agrawala V. S. has pointed out that these extraordinary gifts (mahādānāni) involving huge quantities of gold and jewels could be conceived in an age of exceptional prosperity such as the Golden Age of Indian history. 12

However, it may be pointed that these mahādānas were conceived not only in the Gupta period but in later period too.

The Śilāhāra kings (949 A. D.—1205 A. D.) had three families which were ruling at Purī in north Konkaṇa, near Khāre-pāṭaṇa in the south Konkaṇa and at Karavīra (i. e. Kolhāpura) in which the family at Karavīra was prosperous. These Śilāhāras observed vaidika and paurāṇic religion and they had given shelter to the Jains. It is stated in the plate of Śilāhāra king Gaṇḍa rāditya

^{9.} Ib. 181, 9-12 ab.

Inden Ronald, "Ritual Authority and Cyclic Times in Hindu Kingship", Kingship and Authority in South Asia, ed. by J. F. Richards, South Asian Studies, University of Wisconsin, Madison Publication series No. 3, 1978, p. 38.

Agrawala V.S., Sapta-Sāgara Māhādāna, Purāņa 1960. Vārāṇasī, Vol. I. No. 2.

(dated šaka 1032; 1110 A. D.) that he had made pañcalāvgala wata on moon eclipse in Vaijākha. 12

So it is obvious that:

- (a) the mahādānas were actually practised in the period after Gupta dynasty too.
- (b) the kings in India had the major part in practising the mahādānas.

^{12.} Pandit Bhagavanalala, Indraji "Copper-plate of the Silahara Dynasty" Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, Vol. 13 p. 33. श्रीमन्महामङक्षेत्रर्था गंडरावित्य देवः श्रीप्रयागी क्ष्मश्राहाणान्त्रोजियात्वा तद्भीजनाविद्याकायवृत्तिमेकामयच्छत् तत्संवत्सरी-परिताविक्रतमंबसरवैशाखपीणास्यां सोमग्रहणपर्वणि पञ्चलाङ्गळन्नतं कृत्वा तद्भविद्यां वृत्तिदेवं द्वाति स्म।

KNOWLEDGE REPRESENTATION IN SANSKRIT AND ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE*

By Rick Briggs

The article, here reproduced, is for general interest of Sanskrit Scholars, who are requested to take it into consideration and suggest their opinion so that a complete and comprehensive method for the utilization of Sanskrit language analisis in developing Artificial Intelligence in the computer may be evolved.

The Editor]

Abstract

In the past twenty years, much time, effort, and money has been expended on designing an unambigous representation of natural languages to make them accessible to computer processing. These efforts have entered around creating schemata designed to parallel logical relations with relations expressed by the syntax and semantics of natural languages, which are clearly cumbersome and ambiguous in their function as vehicles for the transmission of logical data. Understandably, there is a widespread belief that natural languages are unsuitable for the transmission of many ideas that artificial languages can render with great precision and mathematical rigor.

But this dichotomy, which has served as a premise underlying much work in the areas of linguistics and artificial intelligence, is a false one. There is at least one language, Sanskrit, which for the duration of almost 1000 years was a living spoken language with a considerable literature of its own. Besides works of literary value, there was a long philosophical and grammatical tradition that has continued to exist with undiminished vigor until the present century. Among the accomplishments of the grammarians can be reckoned a method for paraphrasing Sanskrit in a manner

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We thank Mr. Pakkhiwala for having signalled it and sent us a photostate copy of this article.

that is identical not only in essence but in form with current work in Artificial Intelligence. This article demonstrates that a natural language can serve as an artificial language also, and that much work in AI has been reinventing a wheel millenia old.

First, a typical Knowledge Representation Scheme (using Semantic Nets) will be laid out, followed by an outline of the method used by the ancient Indian Grammarians to analyze sentences unambiguously. Finally, the clear parallelism between the two will be demonstrated, and the theoretical implications of this equivalence will be given.

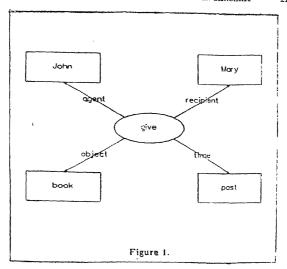
Semantic Nets

For the sake of comparison, a brief overview of semantic nets will be given, and examples will be included that will be compared to the Indian approach. After early attempts at machine translation (which were based to a large extent on simple dictionary look-up) failed in their effort to teach a computer to understand natural language, work in Al turned to Knowledge Representation.

Since translation is not simply a map from lexical item to lexical item, and since ambiguity is inherent in a large number of utterances, some means is required to encode what the actual meaning of a sentence is. Clearly, there must be a representation of meaning independent of words used. Another problem is the interference of syntax. In some sentences (for example active/passive) syntax is, for all intents and purposes, independent of meaning. Here one would like to eliminate considerations of syntax. In other sentences the syntax contributes to the meaning and here one wishes to extract it.

I will consider a "prototypical" semantic net system similar to that of Lindsay, Norman, and Rumelhart in the hopes that it is fairly representative of basic semantic net theory. Taking a simple example first, one would represent "John gave the ball to Mary" as in Figure 1. Here five nodes connected by four labeled arcs capture the entire meaning of the sentence. This information can be stored as a series of "triples":

give, agent, John give, object, ball give, recipient, Mary give, time, past.

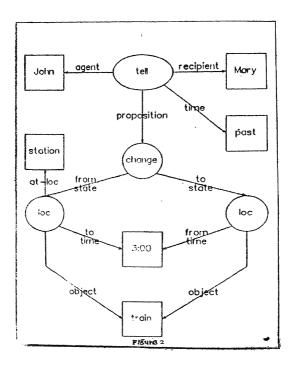


Note that grammatical information has been transformed into an arc and a node (past tense). A more complicated example will illustrate embedded sentences and changes of state:

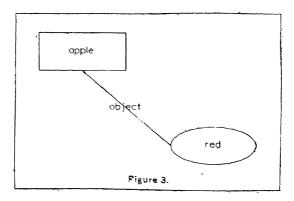
"John told Mary that the train moved out of the station at 3 o'clock."

As shown in Figure 2. there was a change in state in which the train moved to some unspecified location from the station. It went to the former at 3:00 and from the latter at 3:00. Now one can routinely convert the net to triples as before.

The verb is given central significance in this scheme and is considered the focus and distinguishing aspect of the sentence. However, there are other sentence types which differ fundamentally from the above examples. Figure 3 illustrates a sentence that is one of "state" rather than of "event." Other nets could represent statements of time, location or more complicated structures.



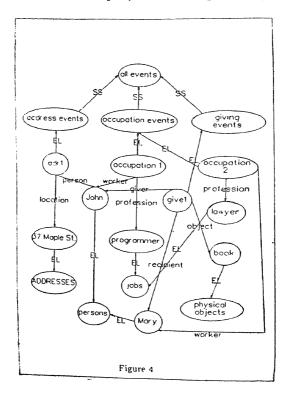
A verb, say, "give", has been taken as primitive, but what is the meaning of "give" itself? Is it only definable in terms of the structure it generates? Clearly two verbs can generate the same structure. One can take a set-theoretic approach and a particular give as an element of "giving events" itself a subset of ALL-EVENTS. An example of this approach is given in Figure 4 ("John, a programmer living at Maple St., gives a book to Mary, who is a lawyer").



If one were to "read" this semantic net, one would have a very long text of awkward English: "There is a "John" who is an element of the "Persons" set and who is the person who lives at ADR1, where ADR1 is a subset of ADDRESS-EVENTS, itself a subset of "ALL EVENTS', and has location '37 Maple St.', an element of Addresses; and who is a "worker" of 'occupation 1' etc."

The degree to which a semantic net (or any unambiguous, nonsyntactic representation) is cumbersome and odd-sounding in a natural languate is the degree to which that language is "natural" and deviates from the precise or "Artificial." As we shall see, there was a language spoken among an ancient scientific community that has a deviation of zero.

The hierarchical structure of the above net and the explicit descriptions of set-relations are essential to really capture the meaning of the sentence and to facilitate inference. It is believed by most in the Al and general linguistic community that natural languages do not make such seemingly trivial hierarchies explicit. Below is a description of a natural language, Shastric Sanskrit, where for the past millenia successful attempts have been made to encode such information.



Shastric Sanskrit

The sentence :

(1) "Caitra goes to the village." (graamam gacchati caitra) receives in the analysis given by an eighteenth-century Sanskrit Grammarian from Maharashtra, India, the following paraphrase:

(2) "There is an activity which leads to a connection-activity which has as Agent no one other than Caitra, specified by singularity, [which] is taking place in the present and which has as Object something not different from 'village'."

The author, Nagesha, is one of a group of three or four prominent theoreticians who stand at the end of a long tradition of investigation. Its beginnings date to the middle of the first millenium B. C. when the morphology and phonological structure of the language, as well as the framework for its syntactic description were codified by Panini. His successors elucidated the brief, algebraic formulations that he had used as grammatical rules and where possible tried to improve upon them. A great deal of fervent grammatical research took place between the fourth century B. C. and the fourth century A. D. and culminated in the seminal work, the Vakyapadiya by Bhartrhari. Little was done subsequently to advance the study of syntax, until the so-called "New Grammarian" school appeared in the early part of the sixteenth century with the publication of Bhattoji Dikshita's Vaiyakarana-bhusanasara and its commentary by his relative Kaundabhatta, who worked from Benares. Nagesha (1730-1810) was responsible for a major work, the Vaiyakaranasiddhantamanjusa, or Treasury of definitive statements of grammarians, which was condensed later into the earlier described work. These books have not yet been translated.

The reasoning of these authors is couched in a style of language that had been developed especially to formulate logical relations with scientific precision. It is a terse, very condensed form a Sanskrit, which paradoxically at times becomes so abstruse that a commentary is necessary to clarify it.

One of the main differences between the Indian approach to language analysis and that of most of the current linguistic theories is that the analysis of the sentence was not based on a nounphrase model with its attending binary parsing technique but instead on a conception that viewed the sentence as springing from the semantic message that the speaker wished to convey. In its origins, sentence description was phrased in terms of a generative model. From a number of primitive syntactic categories (verbal action, agents, object, etc.) the structure of the sentence was derived so that every word of a sentence could be referred back to the

syntactic input categories. Secondarily and at a later period in history, the model was reversed to establish a method for analytical descriptions.

In the analysis of the Indian grammarians, every sentence expresses an action that is conveyed both by the verb and by a set of "auxiliaries." The verbal action (kriya-"action" or sadhya-"that which is to be accomplished,") is represented by the verbal root of the verb form; the "auxiliary activities" by the nominals (nouns, adjectives, indeclinables) and their case endings (one of six).

The meaning of the verb is said to be both vyapara (action, activity, cause), and phala (fruit, result, effect). Syntactically, its meaning is invariably linked with the meaning of the verb "to do". Therefore, in order to discover the meaning of any verb it is sufficient to answer the question: "What does he do?" The answer would yield a phrase in which the meaning of the direct object corresponds to the verbal meaning. For example, "he goes" would yield the paraphrase : "he performs an act of going"; "he drinks": "performs an act of drinking," ect. This procedure allows us to rephrase the sentence in terms of the verb "to do" or one of its synonyms, and an object formed from the verbal root which expresses the verbal action as an action noun. It still leaves us with a verb form ("he does", "he performs"), which contains unanalyzed semantic information. This information in Sanskrit is indicated by the fact that there is an agent who is engaged in an act of going, or drinking, and that the action is taking place in the present time.

Rather that allow the agent to relate to the syntax in this complex, unsystematic fashion, the agent is viewed as a one-time representative, or instantiation of a larger category of "Agency"; which is operative in Sanskrit sentences. In turn, "Agency" is a member of a larger class of "auxiliary activities," which will be discussed presently. Thus Gaitra is some Caitra or instance of Caitras, and agency is hierarchically related to the auxiliary activities. The fact that in this specific instance the agent is a third person singular is solved as follows: The number category (singular, dual, or plural) is regarded as a quality of the Agent

and the person category (first, second, or third) as a grammatical category to be retrieved from a search list, where its place is determined by the singularity of the agent.

The next step in the process of isolating the verbal meaning is to rephrase the description in such a way that the agent and number categories appear as qualities of the verbal action. This procedure leaves us with an accurate, but quite abstract formulation of the sentence:

(3) "Caitra is going" (gacchati caitra)—"An act of going is taking place in the present of which the agent is no one other than Caitra qualified by singularity."

atraikatvaavacchinnacaitraabinnakartrko vartamaanakaaiko gamanaanukuulo vyaapaarah:) (Double vowels indicate length.)

[अत्रैकत्वावच्छिन्नचैत्राविन्नकर्त् को वर्त्तमानकैको गमनानुकूलो व्यापारः]

If the sentence contains, besides an agent, a direct object, an indirect object and/or other nominals that are dependent on the principal action of the verb, then in the Indian system these nominals are in turn viewed as representations of actions that contribute to the complete meaning of the sentence. However, it is not sufficient to state, for instance, that a word with a dative case represents the "recipient" of the verbal action, for the relation between the recipient and the verbal action itself requires more exact specification if we are to center the sentence description around the notion of verbal action. To that end, the action described by the sentence is not regarded as an indivisible unit, but one that allows further subdivisions. Hence a sentence such as:

(4) "John gave the ball to Mary" involves the verb "to give," which is viewed as a verbal action composed of a number of auxiliary activities. Among these would be John's holding the ball in his hand, the movement of the hand holding the ball from John as a starting point toward Mary's hand as the goal, the seizing of the ball by Mary's hand, etc. It is a fundamental notion that actions themselves cannot be perceived, but the result of the action is observable, viz. the movement of the hand. In this instance we can infer that at least two actions have taken place.

- (a) An act of movement starting from the direction of John and taking place in the direction of Mary's hand. Its Agent is "the ball" and its result is a union with Mary's hand.
- (b) An act of receiving, which consists of an act of grasping whose agent is Mary's hand.

It is obvious that the act of receiving can be interpreted as an action involving a union with Mary's hand, an enveloping of the ball by Mary's hand, etc., so that in theory it might be difficult to decide where to stop this process of splitting meanings, or what the semantic primitives are. That the Indians were aware of the problem is evident from the following passage: "The name 'action' cannot be applied to the solitary point reached by extreme subdivison."

The set of actions described in (a) and (b) can be viewed as actions that contribute to the meaning of the total sentence, viz. the fact that the ball is transferred from John to Mary. In this sense they are "auxiliary actions" (Sanskrit karaka-literally "that which brings about") that may be isolated as complete actions in their own right for possible further subdivision, but in this particular context are subordinate to the total action of "giving." These "auxiliary activities" when they become thus subordinated to the main sentence meaning, are represented by case endings affixed to nominals corresponding to the agents of the original auxiliary activity. The Sanskrit language has seven case endings (excluding the vocative), and six of these are definable representations of specific "auxiliary activities." The seventh, the genitive, represents a set of auxiliary activities that are not defined by the other six. The auxiliary actions are listed as a group of six. Agent, Object, Instrument, Recipient, Point of Departure, Locality. They are the semantic correspondents of the syntactic case endings: nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative and locative, but these are not in exact equivalence since the same syntactic structure can represent different semantic messages, as will be discussed below. There is a good deal of overlap between the karakas and the case endings, and a few of them, such as Point of Departure, also are used for syntactic information, in this case "because of". In many instances the relation is best characterized as that of the allo-eme variety.

To illustrate the operation of this model of description, a sentence involving an act of cooking rice is of ten quoted:

(5) "Out of friendship, Maitra cooks rice for Devadatta in a pot, over a fire."

Here the total process of cooking is rendered by the verb form "cooks" as well as a number of auxiliary actions:

- 1. An Agent represented by the person Maitra
- 2. An Object by the "rice"
- 3. An Instrument by the "fire"
- 4. A Recipient by the person Devadatta
- 5. A Point of Departure (which includes the causal relationship) by the "friendship" (which is between Maitra and Devadatta)
 - 6. The Locality by the "pot"

So the total meaning of the sentence is not complete without the intercession of six auxiliary actions. The action itself can be inferred from a change of the condition of the grains of rice, which started out being hard and ended up being soft.

Again, it would be possible to atomize the meaning expressed by the phrase: "to cook rice": It is an operation that is not a unitary "process", but a combination of processes, such as "to place a pot on the fire, to add fuel to the fire, to fan", etc. These processes, moreover, are not taking place in the abstract, but they are tied to, or "resting on" agencies that are associated with the processes. The word used for "tied to" is a form of the verbal root a-sri, which means "to lie on, have recourse to, be situated on". Hence it is possible and usually necessary to paraphrase a sentence such as "he gives" as: "an act of giving residing in him." Hence the paraphrase of sentence (5) will be:

(6) "There is an activity conducive to a softening which is a a change residing in something not different from rice, and which takes place in the present, and resides in an agent not different from Maitra, who is specified by singularity and has a Recipient not different from Devadatta, an Instrument not different from ...," etc.

It should be pointed out that these Sanskrit Grammatical Scientists actually wrote and talked this way. The domain for this type of language was the equivalent of today's technical journals. In their ancient journals and in verbal communication with each other they used this specific, unambiguous form of Sanskrit in a remarkably concise way.

Besides the verbal root, all verbs have certain suffixes that express the tense and/or mode, the persons or items so engaged. For example, the use of passive voice would necessitate using an Agent with an instrumental suffix, whereas the nonpassive voice implies that the agent of the sentence, if represented by a noun or pronoun, will be marked by a nominative singular suffix.

Word order in Sanskrit has usually no more than stylistic significance, and the Sanskrit theoreticians paid no more than scant attention to it. The language is then very suited to an approach that eliminates syntax and produces basically a list of semantic messages associated with the karakas.

An example of the operation of this model on an intransitive sentence is the following:

(7) "Because of the wind, a leaf falls from a tree to the ground".

Here the wind is instrumental in bringing about an operation that results in a leaf being disunited from a tree and being united with the ground. By virtue of functioning as instrument of the operation, the term "wind" qualifies as a representative of the auxiliary activity "Instrument"; by virtue of functioning as the place from which the operation commences, the "tree" qualifies to be called "The Point of Departure"; by virtue of the fact that it is the place where the leaf ends up, the "ground" receives the designation "Locality". In the example, the word "leaf" serves only to further specify the agent#that is already specified by the nonpassive verb in the form of a personal suffix. In the language it is rendered as a nominative case suffix. In passive sentences other statements have to be made. One may argue that the above phrase does not differ in meaning from "The wind blows a leaf from the tree," in which the "wind" appears in the Agent slot, the "leaf" in the Object slot. The truth is that this phrase is transitive, whereas the earlier one is intransitive. "Transitivity" can be

viewed as an additional feature added to the verb. In Sanskrit this process is often accomplished by a suffix, the causative suffix, which when added to the verbal root would change the meaning as follows: "The wind causes the leaf to fall from the tree," and since English has the word "blows" as the equivalent of "causes to fall" in the case of an Instrument "wind," the relation is not quite transparent. Therefore, the analysis of the sentence presented earlier, in spite of its manifest awkwardness, enabled the Indian theoreticians to introduce a clarity into their speculations on language that was theretofore unavailable. Structures that appeared radically different at first sight become transparent transforms of a basic set of elementary semantic categories.

It is by no means the case that these analyses have been exhausted, or that their potential has been exploited to the full. On the contrary, it would seem that detailed analyses of sentences and discourse units had just received a great impetus from Nagesha, when history intervened: The British conquered India and brought with them new and apparently effectives means for studing and analyzing languages. The subsequent introduction of Western methods of language analysis, including such areas of research as historical and structural linguistics, and lately generative linguistics, has for a long time acted as an impediment to further research along the traditional ways. Lately, however, serious and responsible research into Indian semantics has been resumed, especially at the University of Poona, India. The surprising equivalence of the Indian analysis to the techniques used in applications of Artificial Intelligence will be discussed in the next section.

Equivalence

A comparison of the theories discussed in the first section with the Indian theories of sentence analysis in the second section shows at once a few striking similarities. Both theories take extreme care to define minute details with which a language describes the relations between events in the natural world. In both instances, the analysis itself is a map of the relations between events in the universe described. In the case of the computer-oriented analysis, this mapping is a necessary prerequisite for making the speaker's natural language digestible for the artificial processor; in the case of Sanskrit, the motivation is more elusive

and probably has to do with an age-old Indo-Aryan preoccupation to discover the nature of the reality behind the impressions we human beings receive through the operation of our sense organs. Be it as it may, it is a matter of surprise to discover that the outcome of both trends of thinking—so removed in time, space, and culture—have arrived at a representation of linguistic events that is not only theoretically equivalent but close in form as well. The one superficial difference is that the Indian tradition was on the whole, unfamiliar with the facility of diagrammatic representation, and attempted instead to formulate all abstract notions in grammatical sentences. In the following paragraphs a number of the parallellisms of the two analyses will be pointed out to illustrate the equivalence of the two systems.

Consider the sentence: "John is going." The Sanskrit paraphrase would be

"An Act of going is taking place in which the Agent is 'John' specified by singularity and masculinity."

If we now turn to the analysis in semantic nets. the event portrayed by a set of triples is the following:

- 1. "going events, instance, go (this specific going event)"
- 2. "go, agent, John"
- 3, "go, time, present."

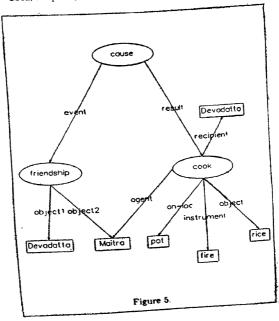
The first equivalence to be observed is that the basic framework for inference is the same. John must be a semantic primitive, or it must have a dictionary entry, or it must be further represented (i.e. "John, number, 1" etc.) if further processing requires more detail (e.g. "How many people are going?"). Similarly, in the Indian analysis, the detail required in one case is not necessarily required in another case, although it can be produced on demand (if-needed). The point to be made is that in both systems, an extensive degree of specification is crucial in understanding the real meaning of the sentence to the extent that it will allow inferences to be made about the facts not explicitly stated in the sentence.

The basic crux of the equivalence can be illustrated by a careful look at sentence (5) noted in Part II.

"Out of friendship, Maitra cooks rice for Devadatta in a pot over a fire."

The semantic net is supplied in Figure 5. The triples corresponding to the net are:

cause, event, friendship friendship, object1, Devadatta friendship, object 2, Maitra cause, result, cook cook, agent, Maitra cook, recipient, Devadatta



cook, instrument, fire cook, object, rice cook, on-loc, pot.

The sentence in the Indian analysis is rendered as follows:
The Agent is represented by Maitra, the Object
by "rice", the Instrument hy "fire," the Recipient
by "Devadatta," the Point of Departure (or cause)
by "friendship" (between Maitra and Devadatta), the Locality by "pot."

Since all of these syntactice structures represent actions auxiliary to the action "cook," let us write "cook" next to each karaka and its sentence representation:

cook, agent, Maitra cook, object, rice cook, instrument, fire cook, recipient, Devadatta cook, because-of, friendship friendship, Maitra, Devadatta cook, locality, pot.

The comparison of the analyses shows that the Sankrit sentence when rendered into triples matches the analysis arrived at through the application of computer processing. That is surprising, because the form of the Sanskrit sentence is radically different from that of the English. For comparison, the Sanskrit sentence is given here:

Maitrah: sauhardyat Devadattaya odanam ghate agnina pacati.

[मैत्रः सौहद्यत् देवदत्ताय ओदनं घटे अग्निना पचित]

Here the stem forms of the nouns are: Maitra-sauhardya"friendship." Devadatta—, odana "gruel", ghata-"pot", agni-"fire"
and the verb stem is paca-"cook". The deviations of the stem
forms occurring at the end of each word represent the change dictated by the word's semantic and syntactic position. It should also
be noted that the Indian analysis calls for the specification of even
a greater amount of grammatical and semantic detail: Maitra,
Devadatta, the pot, and fire would all be said to be qualified by

"singularity" and "masculinity" and the act of cooking can optionally be expanded into a number of successive perceivable activities. Also note that the phrase "over a fire" on the face of it sounds like a locative of the same form as "in a pot". However, the context indicates that the prepositional phrase describes the instrument through which the heating of the rice takes place and, therefore, is best regarded as an instrument semantically.

Of course, many versions of semantic nets have been proposed, some of which match the Indian system better than others do in terms of specific concepts and structure. The important point is that the same ideas are present in the case of many proposed semantic net systems it is the Indian analysis which is more specific.

A third important similarity between the two treatments of the sentence is its focal point which in both cases is the verb. The Sanskrit here is more specific by rendering the activity as a "going-event", rather than "going." This procedure introduces a new necessary level of abstraction, for in order to keep the analysis properly structured, the focal point ought to be phrased: "there is an event taking place which is one of cooking," rather than "there is cooking taking place", in order for the computer to distinguish between the levels of unspecified "doing" (vyapara) and the result of the doing (phala).

A further similarity between the two systems is the striving for unambiguity. Buth Indian and AI schools encode in a very clear, often apparently redundant way, in order to make the analysis accessible to inference. Thus, by using the distinction of phala and vyapara, individual processes are separated into components which in term are decomposable. For example, "to cook rice" was broken down as "placing a pot on the fire, adding fuel, fanning, etc." Cooking rice also implies a change of state, realized by the phala, which is the heated softened rice. Such specifications are necessary to make logical pathways, which otherwise would remain unclear. For example, take the following sentence.

"Maitra cooked rice for Devadatta who burned his mouth while eating it."

The semantic nets used earlier do not give any information about the logical connection between the two clauses. In order to fully understand the sentence, one has to be able to make the inference that the cooking process involves the process of "heating" and the process of "making palatable." The Sanskrit grammarians bridged the logical gap by the employment of the phalal pyapara distinction. Semantic nets could accomplish the same in a variety of ways:

- 1. by mapping "cooking" as a change of state, which would involve an excessive amount of detail with too much compulsory inference:
- 2. by representing the whole statement as a cause (event-result), or
 - 3. by including dictionary information about cooking.

A further comparison between the Indian system and the theory of semantic nets points to another similarity: The passive and the active transforms of the same sentence are given the same analysis in both systems. In the Indian system the notion of the "intention of the speaker" (tatparya, vivaksa) is adduced as a cause for distinguishing the two transforms semantically. The passive construction is said to emphasize the object, the nonpassive emphasizes the agent. But the explicit triples are not different. This observation indicates that both systems extract the meaning from the syntax.

Finally, a point worth noting is the Indian analysis of the intransitive phrase (7) describing the leaf falling from the tree. The semantic net analysis resembles the Sanskrit analysis remarkably, but the latter has an interesting flavor. Instead of a change from one location to another, as the semantic net analysis prescribes, the Indian system views the process as a uniting and distuniting of an agent. This process is equivalent to the concept of addition to and deletion from sets. A leaft falling to the ground can be viewed as a leaf disuniting from the set of leaves still attached to the tree followed by a uniting with (addition to) the set of leaves already on the ground. This theory is very useful and necessary to formulate changes or statements of state, such as "The hill is in the valley."

In the Indian system, inference is very complete indeed. There is, at each instant, a disunion with a preceding point (the source, the initial state), and a union with the following point, toward the destination, the final state. This calculus-like concept facillitates inference. If it is stated that a process occurred, then a language processor could answer queries about the state of the world at any point during the execution of the process.

As has been shown, the main point in which the two lines of thought have converged is that the decomposition of each prose sentence into karaka-representations of action and focal verbalaction, yields the same set of triples as those which result from the decomposition of a semantic net into nodes, arcs, and labels. It is interesting to speculate as to why the Indians found it worthwhile to pursue studies into unambiguous coding of natural language into semantic elements. It is tempting to think of them as computer scientists without the hardware, but a possible explanation is that a search for clear, unambiguous understanding is inherent in the human being. Let us not forget that among the great accomplishments of the Indian thinkers were the invention of zero, and of the binary number system a thousand years before the West re-invented them. Their analysis of language casts doubt on the humanistic distinction beween natural and artificial intelligence, and may throw light on how research in AI may finally solve the natural language understanding and machine translation problems.

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BOOK-REVIEWS

Clifford Hospital, The Righteous Demon—A Study of Bali, Vancouver (University of British Columbia Press) 1984, pp. ix., 294.

The book is really a piece of art and one is delighted in following the development of the figure of Bali from being a mere demon (asura) to the status of a great king. The author gives the English translation of all the evidence he produces (a fashion which is spreading especially among the writers in English). The reader has in this way the impression that he can judge the validity of the author's arguments as he himself can check the text the author uses for his deductions. The question, however, is whether such an impression is correct or not. Much depends on whether we have a Bali kathā in the proposed texts (i. e. the kathā is more important than the text in which it is contained), or a text containing a Bali kathā. Is it a sound method to isolate a single kathā from its puranic context? While we may not be in a position to give at present a final answer to this question, a little more space had to be given to analyse the context.

Clifford Hospital attempts a 'modified structuralist approach' to Bali (p. 5) and surely his book proves the soundness of his method, the results being really superb. Here also, however, I still doubt whether the references to western approach to similar problems of demons and devil are illuminating in this case or whether they are focussing the attention on aspects external to the tradition he is considering. In fact this 'western' touch, with its stressing on dating, schemes and unification disturbs, even if only occasionally, the natural flowing of the different aspects of the story (see pp. 43-44, 56-57, 79-80).

The deeds of Bali are grouped by Clifford Hospital into Myth A, B and C (B and C being represented by two and one texts respectively) and myth A is in its turn analysed into five phases which belong partly to the same milieu and partly to a different milieu. This division helps to group texts according to a logical and partially historical scheme of development.

Every text has been therefore examined and divided into 'significant basic units' (p.18) which on their turn are grouped to form a 'family relationship' (p.19). This procedure of examination, natural to the structural analysis of the texts—it has been applied to Purāṇa-s also—can be used, with more philological sensitivity, for texts like Pretakalpa of the Garuḍa Purāṇa that, although hardly containing any kathā, have grown much in the same way as the kathā-s.

Hospital's structural analysis of puranic $kath\bar{a}$ -s is still one of the best approaches in this direction. We need to explore all the possibilities of such a method with due modifications. The positive results obtained until now are an encouragement to proceed further in these attempts.

-G. Bonazzoli

Noel Sheth, S. J.: The Divinity of Krishna, N. Delhi (Munshiram Manoharlal Publishers) 1984, pp. XV, 179.

Although no subtitle is given, the book deals, in fact, only with the portrait of Krishna in the Visnuparvan section of the Harivamsa, the Fifth Book of the Visnu Purana and the Tenth Book of the Bhagavata. Daniel H. H. Ingalls in his Foreword seems to give the reason for such a choice when he states that 'each (of these works) comes from a different century; and each shows a distinct attitude towards its subject, attitudes that might be reduced to the themes hero worship, orthodox piety and mystical love' (p. XI). Noel Sheth indeed has analysed even the smallest details of these three pieces of Hindu Scriptures with a deep competence which is not confined to the Sanskrit text, but takes into consideration also the Sanskrit commentaries and the secondary literature on the subject. His psychological insights are in several cases superb. This love for analysis is the richness of the book and constitutes at the same time its limit. The single analysed episodes, indeed, repeat constantly the scheme that the author has prefixed at the beginning and so, while learning everything about the stories in the three works, we do not get any new idea out of those expressed in the Preface and in the Foreword. Krishna is depicted as a hero in the Harivarnsa and becomes the object of mystical love in the Bhāgavata Purāṇa, through a phase of intense piety described in the Viṣṇu Purāṇa. Prof. Ingalls writes that 'as their understanding of what it means to be divine became more enlightened and refined, the believers endeavoured to remove the blemishes from their earlier portraits of Krishna thus making his divinity shine forth more brilliantly.' (p. XIV). In the description of this process the Viṣṇu Purāṇa remains somewhat in the shadow as the stage it represents is not necessary to the development from Harivamsa to Bhāgavata Purāṇa.

Words like 'develop', 'mature' have been used in the book with reference to the different approach of the texts to the person of Krishna, but 'this evolution in their understanding of Krishna identity and divinity does not imply a process of divinization' (p. XIV). It seems then that the process of rising to a deeper religious significance of Krishna is very different from the process that took place in the case of Rāma as it has been studied and analysed by Frank Whaling in his Rise of the Religious significance of Rīma. (Motilal Banarsidas, Delhi, 1980). Both the books, the one by Sheth and the other by Whaling, have been prefaced by prof. Ingalls, yet a doubt comes about the different results of the two researches, whether they should be ascribed to a really different evolution of tradition about the two gods or they are merely an outcome of the different attitude of the researchers.

The book of Dr Sheth offers a rich material whose analysis, deep and competent, will constitute the basis for further researches in this field for several years.

Publications of the De Nobili Research Library

-Edited by Gerhard Oberhammer, Indological Institute of Vienna.

These publications are of very thigh standard, each one of them constituting a positive contribution to the scientific research. The field of interest of this series is India and the cultural-religious relation between East and West.

 Vāsudevāśrama, Yatidharmaprakāśa-A Treatise on World Renunciation; Critically Edited with Introduction, Annotated Translation and Appendices by Patrick Olivelle

Part One-Text, Vienna 1976, pp. 139

Part Two-Translation, Vienna 1977, pp. 231

The work edited in these two volumes was composed between 1675 and 1800 A. D. It is one of the few books on renunciation written by an orthodox Hindu that have been studied and translated into English. The reader will be amazed in discovering the abundance of information one gets from the work. The critical text (Part I), the accurate translation with the numerous references to other similar treatises quoted in Nibandha-s (Part II) constitute a mine of cultural and religious material the reader will be happy to go through.

The translation of astasaam of 71.49 as 'eight hundred' (Part Two, p. 201) must be a slip of pen. It means 8+100=108 only.

 Transzendenzerfahrung, Vollzugshorizont des Heils-Das Problem in indischen und christlicher Tradition, Arbeitsdokumentation eines Symposium, herausgegeben von Gerhard Oberhammer, Wien 1978, pp. 253.

The book contains eleven papers read by the authors at the second Symposium held in Vienna by the De Nobili Research Foundation and the Institute of Indology, University of Vienna from 9th to 14th of February 1977. The papers are all in German except one in French and they are grouped into two parts, one containing those paper that are properly referring to indological

aspects and the other containing those concerned with more Christian theological problems. Following the theme proposed by the Symposium the authors, especially in the second part, present their topic in the light of a cultural-religious dialogue between India and West, It is a pity that, since the work is in German, a language usually not known in India, most of those who may be interested in the results of such a symposium will not be in a position to take full advantage of it.

 Sabdaprāmānyam in Sabara and Kumārila—Towards a Study of the Mimāmsā Experience of Language by Francis X. D'Sa, S. J., Vienna 1980, pp. 218

After an Introduction to the Mimāmsā, D'Sa divides his study into two parts: Śabdaprāmānyam in Sabara and the Early Mimāmsā; Śabdaprāmānyam in Kumārila. Under these very general and almost unassuming titles there is a richness of content and a newness of approach rarely to be found even in the best books. The author faces some themes of both the authors, especially fabda, artha and sambandha on the one hand and Vedāpauruspava on the other for Śabara, while for Kumārila themes like Sabdanityatā, Ākṛtivāda, Vedaprāmānya are put to the fore. Researches of this kind show how deep and advanced the ancient authors were in the field of philosophical understanding of language process and how their analysis sounds modern to our ears.

I wonder why the author has decided to quote all the Sanskrit words with their nominative case-endings and not with their thematic forms as it is the recognized and accepted international practice.

 Philosophical Implications of Dhvani-Experience of Symbol Language in Indian Aesthetics by Anand Amaladass S. J., Vienna 1984, pp. 240

Although much has been written on Dhvanyāloka, as Amaladass himself remarks at the beginning of his Preface, his book is not an insignificant addition to the pre-existent literature. Amaladass's perspective is somewhat different from the other authors' of this

subject and his contribution on the philosophical understanding of dhvani is very important. The book proves, following Ānandavardhana's Dhvanyāloka, how dhvani language, as symbol language, becomes a hermeneutics that can be applied to texts like the Mahābhārata and others. This philosophical approach of Amaladass gives the message of Ānandavardhana a useful perspective even for the modern and transcultural research on language.

Grundlagen indischer Dichtung and indischen Denkens von (Late)
 Paul Hacker aus dem Nachlass herausgegeben von Klaus
 Ruping, Wien 1985, pp. 148.

We have to thank Klaus Ruping for giving the scholars the deep insights of late prof Hacker on such important topics as Indian poetry and Indian thinking, 'philosophy' and schemes of thought. This is one of those books that should be translated at least in English to make its contents available also to the majority of Indian scholars to whom Hacker's interpretation may give new insights and from whom mainly the reactions may come for confirming or refuting Hacker's synthesis.

ACTIVITIES OF THE ALL-INDIA KASHIRAI TRUST

(January-June 1986)

Garuda Purāņa Work

Collation of the two Bengali manuscripts of the Ācārakhaṇḍa is still continuing and that of a third manuscript is awaiting its completion. Until now we have not been able to procure two Śāradā manuscripts from the Banaras Hindu University Library, one of which is of the Ācārakhaṇḍa and the other of the Pretakalpa. One Devanāgari manuscript of the Pretakalpa from Government Oriental Manuscript Library of Madras is also collated during this period. Further search for the manuscripts is being made.

The concordance of the subjects of the Garuda Purāṇa with the other Purāṇas and the epics is in progress.

Mānasakhanda of the Skanda Purāņa

The critical edition of the further ten chapters (40-50) was prepared in this period and chapters 31-45 are published in this issue.

Śivadharmottara Purāņa

Until now 17 manuscripts of the Śivadharmottara Purāṇa have been procured. The basic text (ādhārapāṭha) for collation has been chosen and written in the collation sheets. Two manuscripts in Devanāgarī and one in Newari have been collated on the collation sheets at Ramnagar. As Dr. Giorgio Bonazzoli the editor of the Śivadharmottara Purāṇa was abroad for some months collation sheets have been prepared in Italy also where collation of the other two manuscripts in Newari has been completed.

Veda-pārāyaņa

In the whole bright fortnight (suklapaksa) of the month of Māgha the complete Taitiriya Śākhā comprising Samhitā, Brāhmana, Ārauyaka and Upanisad was recited from memory in the Vyāsesvara temple of Fort Ramnagar. The reciter of the sākhā was Pt. V. Rajagopal Ghanapathi of Madras. The srotā of the recitation was

Pt. Narayan Ghanapathi. On the successful completion of the recitation the usual $dak siy\bar{a}$ and certificate were given to the reciter and the signal si

Visitors to the Purāņa Department,

During this period the following persons visited the Purāṇa Department and they were acquainted with the works of the Department.

- 1. Sri Viren Brahmabhatta of Ahmedabad
- Dr. Judith Backer, School of Music, University of Michigan, U.S.A.—2. 2. 86
- Daniel Coder, Division of Research Programmes, National Endowment for the Humanities, Washington, D. C.—2. 2. 86
- Wu M. Summer, Ohio State University, Columbus— 2, 2, 86
- His Holiness Jagadguru Sankarācārya Śri Jayendra Sarasvati of Kāñcikāmakotipitham—21. 4. 86

His Holiness minutely observed the critical editions of the Purāṇas and the Purāṇa Bulletin. He blessed the work.

Śaṅkarācārya Encamps in Fort Ramnagar

While concluding his Varanasi visit His Holiness Jagadguru Šankarācārya Sri Jayendra Sarasvati, encamped in the Fort on the evening of 20th April '86 and left the Fort on the evening of 21st. On the morning of 21st His Holiness sanctified every part of the Fort by his presence. His Holiness performed his $P\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ in the noon with all the rituals which were very impressive. On this occasion members of the family of His Highness and all the workers and officers of the Fort along with many devotees of Varanasi attended the $P\bar{a}j\bar{a}$. Prasāda was distributed to all the persons who were present on the occasion. A group of Sanskrit Pandits headed by prof. Reva Prasad Dwivedi paid respect to His Holiness at the time of his departure. His Highness the Maharaja and the Maharaja Kumar gave a reverential send off to His Holiness.

Sahasra Ghatābhiseka of Lord Viśvanātha

Three years back the thieves stole gold from the sanctum sanctorum of the Lord Viśvanātha. For expiation of this and maintaining the sanctity of the idol one thousand and eight vessel baths of the linga and fantihoma were performed by His Highness Kashinaresh Maharaja Dr. Vibhuti Narain Singh, Chairman of the Visvanath Temple Trust. This was performed according to the prescriptions made in the Agni Purana and Isvarasamhitä. The rites were performed on April 14th, 15th & 16th 1986 (Caitra Sukla 5 to 7 V. E, 2043). Pt. Laxmi Sankar Gaurishanker S. Shukla who performed this rite is famous among scholars; he is a trustee of the Trust. On thursday, at the time of abhiseka Sri Srinath Sahaya, the Law Secretary, from Lucknow, was present. All the rites were performed in the presence and guidance of His Holiness Jagadguru Sankaracharya Sri Jayendra Sarasvati of Kanchikamakotipitham and Sri Chella Lakshman Sastri, the representative of Sringeri Sankaracharya, was also present. His Highness Maharaja Dr. Vibhuti Narain Singh performed all the rites from outside the sanctum sanctorum according to the advice of the Kashi Vidvat Parisad and other learned bodies.

MAHARAJA UDIT NARAIN SINGH MANASA PRACHAR NIDHI

Mānasa Navāha Pāţha

From Vaisākha Pratipad to Navamī tithi (9th May to 19th May 1986) the recitation (pārāyaṇa) of the Rāmacaritamānasa and discourses (pravacana) over it by eminent Vyāsas was performed in the Kali temple of the Chakia town. A huge congregation listened to the pravacana daily. His Highness Kashinaresh Maharaja Dr Vibhuti Narain Singh was mostly out on account of a pilgrimage in South India. On his return from the pilgrimage Maharaja Kumar Anant Narain Singh attended the discourses for two days (16th & 17th May). On the concluding two days His Highness Maharaja Kashinaresh attended the discourses. Among the eminent Vyasas Dr Srinath Vyasa made his discourses for the last three days (17th to 19th of May). On the conclusion a great Bhandārā (free meal) was arranged.

CHAIRMAN'S VISIT TO SOUTH INDIA

His Highness the Chairman accompanied by Maharaj Kumar Anant Narain Singh and the three Maharaj Kumaris visited South India from 3 to 11 May 1986. Incidentally, this was his first visit to South India. His Highness was received at the Meenambakkam Airport, Madras, by representatives of the Sankara Bhaktajana Sabha and eminent Sanskrit scholars and garlanded. After an overnight stay at Madras His Highness proceeded to Kanchipuram to meet and pay his respects to His Holiness Jagadguru Sankaracharya of Kanchi Kamakoti Peetham, Sri Chandrasekharendra Sarasvati. He drove along the famed Marina Beach and had 'darsana' of the Bay of Bengal.

Kanchipuram

His Highness drove straight to the Kanchi Matham and was led to the august presence of His Holiness Jagadguru Sankaracharya and after a preliminary meeting adjourned to the apartment reserved for him at the Matham itself. His Highness continued to stay at the Matham except for the night during the two days he stayed in Kanchipuram. His Highness took time to visit the oldest temple dedicated to Goddess Durga in the morning and the famous temple dedicated to Goddess Kamakshi in the evening. He had 'darsana' of the golden processional chariot of the deity. Special worship was conducted at the temple for His Highness on the occasion.

On the morning of 5 May, after his morning worship and recitals of the scriptures at the Matham, His Highness visited the temple dedicated to Siva as "Ekamresvar." His Highness also visited the Varadaraja Temple dedicated to Lord Visnu, the largest temple complex in Kanchipuram

On 5 may a function was organized by the Sankara Bhaktajana Sabha to felicitate His Highness which was attended by His Holiness Sri Jagadguru Sankaracharya the Senior Svamiji and Sankarendra Sarasvati the Junior Svamiji. (His Holiness Sri Jayendra Sarasvati, the first Junior Svamiji was away at Haridwar at the time).

Eminent Sanskrit scholars and citizens including the Chairman of the Kanchipuram Municipality, the Home Secretary to the Government of Tamil Nadu attended the felicitation function and spoke on the occasion. His Highness released a Souvenir entitled "Triveni" brought out by the Sankara Bhakta Jana Sabha with the blessings of His Holiness. His Highness spoke of the relations his family had with the Matham from the time of his forefathers and recounted in some detail the visit of his grandfather His Highness Sir Prabhu Narain Singh Bahadur to Kanchipuram and also the visit of His Holiness to Kashi several years ago. He reiterated the significant role the Pitham has played in the spiritual uplift of millions of Indians in the South and the North and spoke of its existence as a source of inspiration to scholars, saints and spiritual seekers.

His Highness proceeded by car to Madras on 6 May on his pilgrimage to Ramesvaram, availing of the special arrangements made for him for the journey at the command of His Holiness. The officials of the Chinglepet District, the citizens of Kanchipuram and the authorities of the Kanchi Kamakoti Matham spared no efforts in making His Highness's stay and worship at the temples smooth and comfortable.

Ramesvaram

From Madras His Highness travelled in a special bogic to Ramesvaram, reaching there on the morning of 7 May. His Highness bathed in the Laksmana Kund and performed his morning worship and 'parayana'. He proceeded to the sea front and had his bath in the sea. His Highness performed rituals ordained to be performed at a 'Tirtha' at the Sankara Matham of the Kamakoti Pitham and performed 'Sraddha' according to the 'Sastra-s'. His Highness distributed the customary daksina to the Purohits and 'dan' to the poor. He took the train to Madras in the afternoon of the same day.

Bangalore

As His Holiness Jagadguru Sankaracharya of the Sringeri (Śrngagiri) Pitham was camping at the Sankara Matham at Bangalore in connection with the Sankara Jayanti celebrations there, His Highness travelled from Madras to Bangalore to meet

His Holiness and receive his blessings. The train from Madras reached Bangalore on the morning of 9 May. His Highness was received at the Station by representatives of His Holiness and driven to the Sankara Matham Guest House where arrangements for his stay were made. His Highness was received by His Holiness shortly after his reaching the Guest House. In the afternoon His Highness attended a meeting in connection with the Sankara Jayanti celebrations at which he was the Chief Guest. His Highness was felicitated at the meeting and prominent devotees of His Holiness spoke on the occasion. His Highness spoke at the function and expressed his profound gratitude to His Holiness for guiding the upbringing of Maharaj Kumar Anant Narain Singh in the true Indian tradition and for encouraging His Highness to initiate him to the study of Nyaya Darsana. His Highness also had darsana at the temple dedicated to Goddess Sarada attached to the Matham.

On 10 May His Highness drove to Sringeri to meet the Junior Svamiji of Sringeri who was camping at the Peetham itself.

Sringeri

On reaching Sringeri, His Highness was led into the presence of the Junior Svamiji at the Narasimha Matham. Sankara Jayanti celebrations were on at Sringeri also and His Highness attended a function in this connection in the evening. His Highness spoke at the function in Hindi and thanked the Svamiji for the great interest shown by His Holiness in the education of his children, especially Maharaj Kumar and Third Maharaj Kumari in Nyaya Darsana. After taking leave of His Holiness he drove back to Bangalore the same evening and reached Bangalore on the morning of 11 May.

On 11 May His Highness had 'darsana' of His Holiness the Senior Svamiji of Sringeri in the morning and sought His Holiness's blessings for his onward journey to Haridwar to perform the the worship of the Ganges on the Aksaya Tritiya. His Highness and family left Bangalore for Delhi enroute to Haridwar by plane in the afternoon.

Haridwar

Reaching Haridwar on 11 May, His Highness performed the Kumbha 'Snan' in the Ganga and performed the Ganga 'Pujan'. His Highness called on His Holiness Jayendra Sarasvati of Kanchi Kamakoti Pitham where he was camping for the Kumbh 'Snan'. His Highness and family also took part in the evening 'Arati' to Ganga.

NOTES & NEWS

Attention of scholars is drawn to the following letter of the President, The Institute for Advanced Studies of World Religions, New York, U. S. A., sent to the Chairman of the All-India Kashiraj Trust, Fort Ramnagar, Varanasi for circulation.

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पुराणम्

(भागः-२८; ग्रङ्कः-२)

PURĀNA

(Vol. XXVIII. 2)

संस्कृत-खण्डः

(१) पुराणगत-दर्शनशास्त्र-धर्मशास्त्रादि-विषयकान् लेखान्, (२)

पुराणोक्त-दुल्हार्यकासप्टार्थकवचनव्याख्यापरान् लेखांश्च प्रेषये-

संस्कृतविद्वांसोऽभ्यर्थ्यन्ते यत्ते पुराणपत्रिकायां प्रकाशनार्थम्

यूरिति।

आङ्गलभाषानिबद्धानां लेखानां संक्षेपाः

शिवपुराणोक्तविषयविशेषाणां संकलनम्-२ GLEANINGS FROM THE SIVA-PURAŅA—2

R. N. DANDEKAR

ि द्भम् — लिङ्गिबरिहता शिवपूजा व्यर्थेति शिवपुराणं महता कण्टेन प्रतिपादयित । महत् खलु स्थानं लिङ्गस्य शैवधर्मे । निराकारस्य शिवस्य लिङ्गमिप तथैव । शिवः सकलः साकारश्च, अतो मूर्तिरूपेणापि शिव उपास्यते । सकलानि देवान्तराणि, अतस्तानि लिङ्गस्पेण नोपास्यन्ते । शिवपूजायां लिङ्गपूजायाः प्रामुख्यमस्ति । लिङ्गपूजायां प्रणव उच्चायते, मूर्तिपूजायां पुनः पञ्चाक्षरो मन्त्रः । मूर्तिरूस्तवेषु पूज्यते । लिङ्गपूजायाऽम्युदयस्य निःश्येयसस्य चाधिगमो भवति ।

लिङ्गोत्पत्तिविषये शिवपुराणे नैकविधाः कथा उक्ताः । योनि-शिवनसमाहार-रूपं लिङ्गिमित्यपि सूचितम् । लीनमव्यक्तमथित् शिवं गमयतीति लिङ्गिमित्युक्तम् । सन्ति लिङ्गस्य बहवो भेदाः । प्रणवलिङ्गं द्विविधं स्यूलसूक्ष्मभेदात् । पार्थिवं लिङ्गं स्वयंभ्वादि-पञ्चभेदयुतम् ।

देविषतपसा प्रसन्नः सन् शिवो नादरूपी भूत्वा व्यक्तरूपेणात्मानं प्रकटयित । स्वयं जातत्वात् शिवः स्वयंभूरित्युच्यते । प्रतिष्ठित्तिङ्गं द्विविधं पौरूष-प्राकृत-भेदात् । अस्ति चाध्यात्मिकं चरित्रङ्गं यस्य दर्शनं विभिन्नेषु शरीराङ्गेषु भवित । बाह्यवस्तुनिर्मितानि चरित्रङ्गानि, येषु रसित्रङ्गं प्रमुखम् ।

वाण-स्वर्ण-शिलालिङ्गानि क्षत्रियवैश्यशूद्धात् च प्रति यथाकमं मङ्गलाव-हानि भवन्ति । पाधिवलिङ्गानां च पूजा फलप्राप्तये सधवाभिविधवाभिश्च यथायथं करणीयेत्युक्तम् । गुर्घलिङ्गनामकं पाधिवलिङ्गं गुरुवरुपादिभिन्नम् । विष्येणास्य पूजा करणीया । पाधिवलिङ्गस्य पञ्च भेदा औंकारस्य पञ्चावयवाः । पञ्चविधात् पाधिवलिङ्गात् (भू-विकारलिङ्गात्) भिन्नं ध्वनिलिङ्गं प्रणविलङ्गं चास्ति । स्थावरजङ्गम-भेदेनापि लिङ्गस्य दैविध्यम् । प्रथमस्य पूजायां शुश्र्षा विहिता, द्वितीयस्य च तर्पणम् ।

लिङ्गेषु पार्थिवलिङ्गस्य सर्वंशीर्षताञ्म्युपगता । कृतादियुगनेदानुसारेण लिङ्गोपादानस्योल्लेखः कृतः । अष्टासु शिवमूर्तिषु पार्थिवमूर्तिः श्रेष्टा । स्थावर-लिङ्गस्यावयभी द्यौ—महामायारूपा वेदिका, शिवरूपं लिङ्गं च । ब्राह्मणादिभेदेन मृदो भेदा अपि उक्ताः । वेदसंमतायाः पाधिबिळङ्गपूजायाः सामासिको विधिरुप-द्यातः, वैदिकमन्त्राश्चोद्धृताः । पूजक-कामना-भेदेन पाधिबिळङ्गसंख्याऽपि भिद्यते । परिमाणभेदेन पाधिबिळङ्ग त्रिधा किद्मुन्तमा उन्तरमानिकः । पद्मरागस्वर्णादिभिळ्ञ्ञानि निर्मीयन्ते, पूज्यन्ते च तानि इन्द्रादिभिः । बाह्याभ्यन्तरभेदेनापि अस्ति ळिङ्गभेदः । ब्रह्मदिशिभिन पूजाजुष्ठेया । शिवळिङ्गभतिष्ठाविधिश्च विस्तरेणोकः । मन्त्रपीठादि-विषयिणी चर्चापि कृता । स्वकीयळङ्गाभावे परकीयळङ्गं पूज्यमित्युपदिष्टम् ।

शिवभक्ताः प्रवृत्ताः (कर्मकाण्डपराः), निवृत्ताः (ध्यानपराः) वा भवन्ति । प्रवृत्तैरनुष्ठेयं पूजाकर्मं विस्तरेणोक्तमत्र । योनिलिङ्गसमाहाररूपेण शिवो वर्णितः केषुचित् स्थलेषु । दिशितश्चास्य संबन्धो बिन्दुनादाभ्यां प्रणवावयवाभ्याम् । व्याप्तं खलु क्रत्स्नं जगत् नादिबन्दुरूपाभ्यां शिवशक्तिभ्याम् । पुनर्जन्मनिवृत्तये त्रिविध-दुःखनाशाय च शिवलिङ्गपूजा कर्तव्येत्युपदिष्टम् ।

प्रणवः — अस्ति च नेदिष्टः सम्बन्धः प्रणवस्य शिवलिङ्गेन सह । शिवेन विष्णु-ब्रह्मभ्याम् ओंकारमन्त्रो दत्तः, तदर्थश्चोपदिष्टः । अ-उ-म-बिन्दु-नादरूप-पञ्चावयव ओंकारः पञ्चभ्यः शिवववत्रेभ्य उद्भूतः । ओंकारेण जगत् व्यासम्, अस्माञ्च 'नमः शिवाये' ति मन्त्र उद्भूतः । पञ्च मातृकाः पञ्चभ्योऽक्षरेभ्यः (नमः शिवायेति मन्त्रगतेभ्यः) प्रसृताः । ओंकारमन्त्रो लिङ्ग्सम्बद्धः, पञ्चाक्षरमन्त्रश्च मूर्तिसम्बद्धः ।

शिविल्ह्गाद्यन्तौ अविज्ञाय विल्णुब्रह्माणौ शिवं तुष्टुवतुः; ताभ्यां शिवः स्वस्वरूपं द्रितवान् । अत्र अ-उ-म-ध्विनरूप ओंकारः प्रकटितः । शब्दब्रह्म-रूपस्य प्रणवस्य व्याख्या कृताऽस्मिन् प्रसंगे, ओकारं पञ्चाक्षरमन्त्रं चाधिकृत्य बहुक्त मत्र; बहूनां शिवपरकाणां मन्त्राणां चोल्लेखः कृतः । प्रणवो द्विधा सूक्ष्मः स्थूलरूष जीवन्सुक्तव्यवहायः सूक्ष्मो ह्रस्वदीर्धभेदेन द्विविधः । अयं प्रवृत्त-निवृत्तजनान् उपकरोति । व्याह्तीनां मन्त्राणां चादौ प्रणव उच्चार्यः । प्रणवजपविधः प्रणवजपक्तः चोकसः।

शिवयोगिनां त्रयाणां भेदानां स्वरूपं विवृतस् । प्रणवशब्दस्य काल्पनिकानि निर्वचनानि बहुनि प्रदत्तानि ।

शैली—शिवेच्छायाः सर्वविष्ठष्टत्वं सर्वस्य शिवाधीनत्वं शिवमायाया महत्त्वं चात्र प्रतिपादिस् । शिवस्य शिवपुराणस्य च वैदिकत्वं बहुत्त प्रदर्शितस् । उक्तं च—शिवेन विष्णवे वेदा दत्ताः, शिव एव यज्ञः, स एव तत्त्वमसीति-वाक्यगतः तत्पदार्थः । शिवः सगुणो निर्गुण इति वैदिकं मतस् । उमाऽपि वेदोक्ता । वेदवेदान्तवेद्यः शिवः । त्रिपुण्ड्धारणस्य, लिङ्गपूजायाः वेदसंमतत्त्वस्, शिवमन्त्रस्य वैदिकत्वस् इत्यादयः केचन विषयाः सुविशवं प्रतिपादिताः, वेदनीतिमधिकृत्य उदाहरणानि च प्रदत्तानि ।

पौराणिकी कथा कल्पभेदेन भिद्यते इत्युदाहरणेन सह दींगतम् । मौखिकी पुराणपरम्परैवास्य भेदस्य हेतुरिति विज्ञायते ।

बहुसंवादयुतं शिवपुराणम् । एकस्मित् संवादे तत्संबद्धः प्राचीनतरः संवादो-ऽपि घृतः । एषु संवादेषु वक्तु-श्रोतृविषयेऽसंगतिरपि अवलोक्यते । उत्कृष्टं काव्यं खलु शिवपुराणे नोपलभ्यते । कालिदासस्य गीतायाश्चानुकृतिः कविचद् दृश्यते । बहुनां शब्दानामपर्णादीनां काल्पनिकी निरुक्तिरपि दृश्यते । सर्गादिपञ्चलक्षण-विलक्षणा अपि केचन विषया इह् प्रतिपादिताः; धर्मशास्त्रतः शास्त्रान्तरतस्य केचन विषया इह् समाहृताः । शिवपुजायाः प्रागनुष्टेयानि कर्माणि चाप्युक्तानि । शिवोषा-कस्य नाभेरधः स्थः शरीरभागो ब्रह्मसंबन्धी, नाभितः कण्ठपर्यन्तो भागो विल्यु-सम्बन्धी, मुखं पुनः शिवलिङ्गगसंबन्धि भवति—इति चमत्कारजनकं मतमुक्तम् ।

मार्कण्डेयपुराणवर्णितः सर्गः

COSMOGONY IN THE MARKANDEYA-PURANA

VALERIE PERRETT & ROY W. PARRETT

- [१] हिन्दूचिन्तनपरम्परायां सृष्टिपरकाः कथा अत्यन्तं प्राचीनाः, इमाः संहितासु ब्राह्मणेतूपितपत्तु चोपलम्यन्ते । पुराणे सलु सर्गः प्रतिपाद्यविषयरूपेण स्वीकृतः । सृष्टिप्रलयौ सर्गप्रतिसर्गलक्षणान्तर्गतौ । मन्वन्तराण्यपि सर्गप्रतिसर्गाधिन तानि । इसे त्रयो विषया मार्कण्डेयपुराणे यथा प्रतिपादितास्तथात्र चिन्त्यन्ते ।
- [२] जैमिने: सर्गविषयकस्य प्रश्नस्योत्तरे इदमुक्तं यद् ब्रह्मा जगतः कारण-मधिपतित्थः; स जगतो जन्मस्थितिनाशहेतुः; स हिरण्यगर्भोऽनादिनिधनः स्वयंभूः, त्रिगुणमयः, क्षेत्रज्ञः; तस्मात् प्रधानं जायते ।

यद्यपि विवरणमिदं संहिता-ब्राह्मणमतमनुसरित, तथापि सांस्थमतानुर्राझत-मिदमिति व्यक्तं प्रतीयते । सांस्थमद्वैतमतविरोषि, पुरुष-प्रकृत्योनित्यतान्युपगमात् । पुराणेऽद्वैतदृष्टिसांस्थवृष्ट्योमिश्रणं जातमिति विज्ञेयम् । अत्यवात्र ब्रह्मा प्रकृतेर्जातः, पुरुषादिभिन्नश्चोक्तः । पुराणे उक्तम्—ब्रह्मकारणकात् प्रधानात् महान्, ततश्चाहंकारः, ततश्च तन्मात्राणि । तन्मात्रविषये द्वे मते प्रचलिते । शब्दस्यग्नंस्थरसगन्धतन्मात्रेषु उत्तरोत्तरं गुणाधिक्यं जायते—इति मतं पुराणेऽस्मिन् उक्तम् । एतदनन्तरं पूत-विकासमुक्त्वा अण्डतो लोकस्य सृष्टिक्का । अण्डविषयिणी कथातिप्राचीना, धतपथे छान्दोर्गये च दर्शनात । ब्रह्माण्डसृष्टिप्रसंगे ब्रह्मा प्रकृतिपुरुषमयः । सांख्ये पुनः प्रकृतिपुरुषौ परस्परा-त्यन्तिभिन्नौ । पुराणे ब्रह्मादिकर्ता, प्रथमशरीरी । प्रकृतितः सर्गप्रवृत्तिरित्यप्युक्तम् ।

[३] पुराणेऽस्मिन् द्विरूपो ब्रह्मा—एकः अजः, प्रकृतिजात आन्यः, यो भूतसृष्टेरनन्तरं प्रादुभूतः। ब्रह्मविषये यदेव मतं सूतैः श्रुतं तदेव पुराणे उपनिवद्ध-मिति प्रतीयते। पुराणाध्ययनकाले विशेषत इदमवलोकनीयं यत् किं मतं बहुशः प्रतिपादितमितिः, भिन्नासु परिस्थितिष्विप किं मतं समन्वयेन योजितम्, एतदर्थं येन केनापि रूपेण विपरिणामितं च ।

कापि पौराणिकी कथा असंबद्वापि न हेया । कथानां सूक्ष्मं तात्पर्यमस्त्येवेति विज्ञेयम् । परम्परासिद्धं किमपि रहस्यं व्यञ्जयन्ति कथा इमाः । सृष्टि-प्रकरणे ब्रह्मपरके ये दे स्ते ते उमे सेश्वरे इति वृज्यते । अत्रेदं विवेचनीयं यत् प्राचीनतर्रं सांख्यं निरीश्वरम् (रज्ञीष्टीये चतुर्वंशे शतके ईश्वरवादस्य प्रतिष्ठा सांख्ये जाता), अत इदं सिध्यति यद् मार्कण्डेयपुराणीयसृष्टि-विवरणे ईश्वरस्य (ब्रह्मणः) य उल्लेखः स परिवर्तितदार्शनिकमतहेतुकः ।

इदमपि विज्ञेयं यज् जगतः सृष्टिर्नासतो भिवतुमर्होत । ब्रह्मा स्वतो जगद् विरचयति इत्येकं मतम् । मतान्तरे प्रकृतिपुरुषाभ्यां नित्याभ्यां सर्ववस्तुन उत्पित्तः । असतो जगन्न उत्पद्यते—इति मतं हिन्दूचिन्तनधाराया वैशिष्ट्यम् । रत्नीष्टीयादि-मतेभ्यो हिन्दुमतं विशिष्यते ।

[४] अस्ति सर्ग-प्रतिसर्गयोरावृत्तिरित्त्युक्तं पुराणे । सर्गप्रतिसर्गयोः प्रवाहिनि-त्यताऽथर्वं-वेदेऽप्युक्ता । हिन्दूचिन्तने सर्गप्रतिसर्गविषये मतान्तराण्यपि सन्तिः, एवं सत्यपि अनयोः प्रवाहिनित्यता सर्वेद्दरी क्रियते । मार्नण्डेयपुराणेऽपि कानिचन मतानि उक्तानि ।

सर्वं प्रलयकाले प्रकृतिपुरुषयोंलीनं भवित—इत्युक्तमस्मिन् पुराणे । इयं ब्रह्मणो रात्रिः । ब्रह्मण एकस्मिन् दिने कल्पो भवित । दिन-रात्री समपरिमाणयुत्ते । उपःकाले ब्रह्मा जागरितो भूत्वा प्रकृति-पुरुषरूपेणाविभविति, स्वविभूत्या तौ क्षोभयित च । स सृष्टिकर्मण ब्रह्मा, स्थितिकर्मणि विष्णुः, नाशकर्मणि च रुद्र इति । मतमिदं विरोधयुतमिप पुराणकारदृशि नासंगतम् ।

'ब्रह्मा अनादिः सर्वकारणम्' इति 'ब्रह्मा प्रक्वतिपुरुषकार्यमूतः' इति च मतद्वयं परस्परिवरोधि, तथापि तद् आस्थेयमेव । उद्देश्यविशेषसिद्धये पुराण-गतानि परस्परिवलक्षणानि मतान्युक्तानि, तेषामिवरोधो न कर्तुं युक्तः ।

[५] प्रकरणस्यादौ ब्रह्मसंबद्वानि दिन-रात्रि-युग-वर्ष-परिमाणान्युक्तानि लेखकेन । ततश्चोक्तं यद् युगचतुष्टयकालनिरूपणप्रसंगे प्रत्येकं युगानां स्वभावो नोक्तः । अनेन गम्यते यत् कालपरिमाणप्रतिपादको मार्कण्डेयपुराणांशो महाभारतात् प्राचीनः, यतः कालपरिमाणविवरणपरे महाभारतीयप्रकरणे युगधर्महासस्योल्लेखो वर्तते ।

एकस्मिन् मन्वन्तरे व्यतीते ब्रह्माण्डं लीनं भवति, ब्रह्मा च स्वपिति एकां रात्रि यावत् । वर्षशतपर्यन्तमायुर्बह्मणः । अहिन्दूमतेष्विप सृष्टिकर्तृ-प्रजापत्यायुः-पिरमाणचर्चा आस्ते । अनेन ब्रह्मणो नित्यता प्रतिषिद्धा । ब्रह्मायुःसमाप्त्यनन्तरं कि जगद् अत्यन्तं नष्टं भवति—न पुनराविभवति ? विषयेऽस्मिन् पुराणिसदं मौनमवलम्बते । पुराणान्तरसंवादत इदं विज्ञायते यद् ब्रह्मायुषः समाप्त्यनन्तरं पुनर्ब्रह्माण्डमाविभवति ।

युगत्रिषयिणी चर्चा बहुषु पुराणेषु कृता उद्देश्यविशेषसिद्धये—इति पाश्चात्त्यैविद्वद्भि रुक्तम् (तदिदं विस्तरेण दक्षितमत्र) ।

[६] प्रलयानन्तरभावि-प्नःसगं (= प्रतिसर्ग)-विषये मार्कण्डेयपुराणे उक्तं यज् जागरणानन्तरं ब्रह्मा जलमग्नां पृथिवीं दवर्श, पृथिव्युद्धरणाय बहूनि सरीराणि (मत्स्यादीनि) जग्नाह च । जलात् पृथिवी मृद्धृत्य सपृथिवीं समी चकार, पर्वतानसृजच्च । तदनन्तरं घ्यायतो ब्रह्मण उद्मिदः, पशवः, देवाः, मनुष्याश्च जित्ररे । एतदनन्तरं योऽनुग्रहसगं उक्तः, स सांख्यमताश्चित इति गम्यते । सांख्याश्चिते विवरणे ईश्वरप्रभावोऽवलोक्यते । प्रजापतिकृतनवसगंविवरणं सांख्यमत मनुसरतीति विज्ञेयम् ।

[७] प्रतिसर्गस्य त्रीणि विवरणानि मार्कण्डेयपुराणे दृश्यन्ते।एपु यत् तृतीयं विवरणं तत् प्राचीनतरम् । ४८ तमाध्यायोक्तं कर्मविषयकं महत्तमं मतं प्रति-पादितम्; देवासुरमृष्टिपरकम् अन्यदिष विवरणमस्ति । इदं नवसगंगत-देवादिसृष्टि-विवरणाद् भिन्नम् । अत्र राक्षसादीनामिष सृष्टिरक्ता ।

[८] ४९ तमाध्याये नेनायुगारम्भकालिको मनुष्यसर्गो निवृतः । ब्रह्ममुखतः सहस्रं नरा नार्यक्ष उद्भूताः सस्वबहुलाः; तथैव तद्वससो रजोबहुलाः समसंख्याकाः । एवमन्येऽपि जनाः । विवरणिमदं चतुर्वणसंवन्धीति स्पष्टं प्रतीयते । लक्षणीयिमदं यत् सर्वेषु प्रतिसर्गोववरणेषु ईश्वरकर्तृत्वम् अम्युगगत मेव । ईश्वरोऽपं ब्रह्मा; सांख्याश्विते विवरणेऽपि ब्रह्मानामस्ति । प्रतिसर्गस्य यद् सांख्याश्वितं विवरणं, यञ्च तद्विलक्षणं विवरणंम्, तयोः समन्वयसाधने पुराणकारस्य न प्रयासो दृश्यते । पुराणगत-परस्पर विश्वसमत्य्याख्याने ओ ल्फेहार्दिमहोदयभाषिताः सिद्धान्ता उपयोगार्हीः ।

पुराणपाठो महाभारतयुद्धकालश्र— ऐतिहासिको पुरातात्त्विको च दृष्टिः ।।

THE PURANIC TEXT AND THE DATE OF THE MAHABHARATA WAR: A HISTORICAL AND ARCHAEOLOGICAL APPROACH

S. SANKARANARAYANAN

महाभारतर्वाणतकुरुक्षेत्रयुद्धकालस्य निर्णयो दुःशकः। ि े े े पुर्निवचारार्हः।केनापि अक्षुण्णेन मार्गेण युद्धकालनिर्णयाय प्रयत्यतेऽत्र।

[१] एतद्विषयविचारकाणां द्वे शाखे। प्रथमशाखीया: कथयन्ति— भारतयुद्धं काल्पनिकम् । सत्यं चेदिदं युद्धं नेदं पारिवारिककलहाद् विशिष्यते। कलहोऽयं कविभिर्महता कण्ठेन वींणतः। द्वितीयशाखीयानां मते युद्धं सत्यमेव, यद्यपि युद्धस्य वर्णनमतिशयोक्तिपूर्णं कल्पनाबहुलं च।

द्वितीयशाखीयानां चत्वारो वर्गाः । (१) प्रथमस्य मते छी० पू० ३१०२ वर्षे युद्ध मिदं जातम् । कालोऽयं महाभारतीयवचनेभ्यः पुराण-वृद्धगर्गशिलालेख-विशेषतश्च सिद्ध्यति (२) द्वितीयस्य मते युद्धं छी० पू० २६००-२५०० वर्षे जातम् । वराहमिहिर-अलवीरुण-कल्हणाविभिमंत्तमिदम् आस्थितम् । (३) तृतीयस्य मते प्रायेण खी० पू० १४००-१००० काले युद्धमिदं जातम् । पुराण-श्लोकविशेषण पुराणगतवंशावलीभिश्च मतिमदं सिद्धं भवति । (४) चतुर्थस्य मते प्रायेण खी० पू० १०००-९०० वर्षे युद्धं संजातम् । पुरातत्त्वदृष्टिसंगतोऽयं कालः । अस्त्रोपादानभूतलौह्धानुनिर्देशात् पुराणोककौशम्बीराजवंशविवरणतंश्च मतिमदं सिद्धं भवति । तृतीय-चतुर्थवगंयोमंते नात्यन्तं विरुद्धे । खीष्टपूर्वं दशमं शतकम् उभयस्वीकृतमिति लक्षणीयम् ।

[२] तृतीय-चतुर्थं-वर्गाभ्यां या पद्धतिरभ्युपगता सांऽज्ञतः समाना, यद्यपि पद्धतिरियं न सर्वथा निश्चयकारिणी। चतुर्थवर्गीयाः स्वमतिवरुद्धपुराणवचसां प्रामाण्यं नाभ्युपगच्छन्ति। तृतीयवर्गीयाश्चतुर्थवर्गसंमतां वैज्ञानिकीं पद्धति न सर्वथा प्रामाणिकीं मन्यन्ते। शुद्धानि पुराणवचांसि यथाकालः भ्रष्टपाठवन्ति जातानि—इति उभयवर्गीया विद्वांसो नावगच्छन्ति। कि च पुरातत्त्वविद्या असंपूर्णाः न सा वाङ्मयसाहय्यमन्तरेण सफला भवितुमहैति।

पुरुकेशि—(द्वितीय)—प्रशस्तिरपि न सर्वथा शुद्धपाठयुता । तत्सदृश-पुराणवाक्यानां पाठाशुद्धिरपि स्वीकरणीयैव । प्रचलितपुराणकाराणां मुख्या दृष्टि रासीद् धर्मादिप्रचारणे, नतु वंशविवरणे, ऐतिहासिककालक्रमनिर्धारणे वा । अत एतद्विषयकाः पुराणवाक्यपाठाः सर्वथा शुद्धा एव भवन्ति—इति न कथयितुं शक्यते । पूर्वाचार्याणाम् ऐतिहासिकं ज्ञानमत्तिशुद्धं नासीदित्यभ्युपेयमेव । किं च पर्जिटरमहोदयकालादारभ्य अद्यापि कालक्षम-प्रदर्शकपुराणवचनानां सम्यगध्ययनं न कृतम् । एतद्वचनानां पाठाः पूर्वावचाराहीः ।

- [३] प्रबट्टकेऽस्मिन् आलोचनाहाँणि पुराणवचांसि त्रिधा विभज्य उद्घृतानि (१८ पङ्क्यः); पाठान्तराणि च संयोजितानि ।
- [४] पाँजटर-प्रभृतिभिः या व्याख्या आसां १८ पङ्कीनां कृता ता उदा-हृता अत्र । आसु पङ्क्षिणु चतस्रो विशिष्टा घटना उक्ताः, घटनासंबन्धि-काल-विवरणं च प्रदक्तम् । घटनाश्च इमाः—(१) परीक्षितो जन्म सिंहासनारोहणं च; महापद्मस्य सिंहासनारोहणम्; (३) आन्ध्रवंशसमाप्तिः; (४) प्रतीपस्य राज्यम् ।
- [५] लेखकेन चत्वारि उदाहरणानि प्रदायोक्तम्—(१) इदं निर्धारितं यन्महापद्मत आरभ्य आन्ध्रवंशसमाप्ति यावत् ६३० वर्षाणि प्रायेण भवन्ति (न तु ८३६ वर्षाणि पुराणवाक्यानुसारेण) । (२) परीक्षिद्-आन्ध्रनाशान्तरकालः प्रायेण ११८६ वर्षाणि भवति । तथैव प्रतीप-परीक्षिदन्तरकालः प्रायेण ८१४ वर्षाणि । राजवंशकालक्रमनिर्धारकं पुराणप्रकरणं ३५० खीष्ट्रपूर्ववर्षतः प्राग् उपनिबद्धम् । खीष्ट्रपूर्व १५ तमे शतके लौह्धातुर्निर्मतासुधसत्ता असंभवी पुरातत्वविद्यादृष्ट्या ।

उपर्युक्तेरुवाहरणैरिदं सिद्धं यत् कानिचन पुराणवचांसि स्वविरोधयुकानि इतिहास-पुरातत्त्वविरुद्धानि च । अथवा इदमि आस्थेयं यन्तास्माभिः मूलभूतानां पुराणवच्यां तात्पर्यं सम्यगवबुद्धम् । अनयो द्वितीयः पक्ष एव ज्यायात्, यतोऽस्मित् पक्षे परम्परायास्त्यागो न भवति । अतः पुराणवच्यां विवक्षिततात्पर्यंज्ञानायेह प्रयत्यते ।

[६] अकरणकाराम्बीतुलारेण पाठसमीक्षा विषेषा । मत्स्यपुराणे प्रथमतो भविष्यराजवंदाविवरणमुपनिबद्धम् प्राक्तनवंदाविवरणानुसारेण । विवरणमिदं पुराणान्तरेष्वपि समागतम् । विशिष्टघटनानामन्तरकाळोऽपि पुराणेषूक्तः ।

उपर्युक्ताः १८ पङ्कीरिषकृत्य विचारः कृतोऽत्र । तथाहि—१-४ पङ्किभिः परीक्षित्ननन्दान्तरकालविषयकं मतं प्रतिपादितम् । अत्र भारतयुद्धकालः स्त्री० पू० ८२३ उक्तः । पुरातत्त्वमतेन सहास्य मतस्य संगतिरस्ति ।

५-७ पङ्क्तिषु आस्प्रजानक हुन्नेन नश्य उपयस्त स्वाक्तिया मतस् प्रतिपादितस् । अत्रत्यानां पुराणबचनानां व्याख्या इत्यं करणीया यथा अन्तरकालः ८३६ वर्ष-परिमितो (न तु ६३८ वर्षं परिमितः) भवेत् । पुराणमतेन सह जैनमतस्य संगतिरस्तीति वेदितव्यम् । ८ पङ्क्तौ कथितं यद् राजवंशविवरणं (आन्ध्रवंशसमाप्तिविवरणेन सह) पुराणगतभविष्यप्रकरणे उक्तम् । अर्वागान्ध्रवंश-विषये असंभव-दोषः कश्चिदस्ति—इत्युक्तं लेखकेन ।

९-१० पङ्क्तिद्वये यन्मतं प्रतिपादितं तत् स्विवरोधि—इत्यत्र प्रदर्शितम् । ११-१२ पङ्क्तिद्वये न काचित् समस्या वर्तते । १३-१४ पङ्क्तिद्वये अस्ति किचिद् विरोध:; अस्य समाधानाय पाठसंशोधनं तथा कार्यं यथा विरोधोऽपगच्छेत् । अस्माकं नेदं मतं यदिमा घटनास्तेष्वेव कालेषु जाता येषां निर्देशा उपर्यक्तेषु वचनेषु कृताः । एषु वाक्येयु आसन्नकालनिर्देश कृत इत्यस्माकं मतम् ।

१५-१६ पङ्किद्वये मघासु सप्तर्षिस्थितिरुक्ता । अत्र द्वे समस्ये । स्त्री० पू० ३१०२ वर्षे कल्रियुगप्रवृत्तिरित मतेन सहास्य विरोधः स्फुट एव । एतन्मतं पुरातत्त्वादिशास्त्रमतैः सह न संवदित । सप्तर्धावृत्तिकालविषयकं मतं सर्वथा काल्पनिकमपि भवितुमहैति । देशकालभेदेन सह गणनारीतेरिप भेदो भवित । कमपि भेदमाश्रित्य उपर्युक्ता गणना कृतेति संभाव्यते ।

१७–१८ पङ्क्तिद्वये परीक्षिन्नन्दान्तरकालः सहस्रवर्षीधेक इत्युक्तम् । अत्र आनन्दात् (आनन्देनेत्यर्थकात्) इतिच्छेदः करणीयः । शुद्धपुराणवचनार्थैः सह शास्त्रान्तरमतानां मेलनेन इदं निश्चप्रचं सिध्यति यद् भारतयुद्धं खी० पू० १०–९ शतके जातं न तु ततः पूर्वम् ।

- [७] बतुर्थं पर्ङ्क्ति-(वर्षंसहस्र तुं . . .) गतवचनेन सह पुराणवचनानां तुलना कृता । इदं च सिद्धान्तितं यत् स्त्री० पू० दशमे शतके भारतयुद्धमभूद् इति मतं तृतीय-चतुर्थंवर्गीयविदुषामनुमतं भवतीति ।
- [2] प्रथम-दिनीय-वाणिविद्याः मतान्यत्र विचार्यन्ते । कलिवस्सरेण सह भारतयुद्धस्य सम्बन्धो न दिशत मार्यभटेन । वराहमिहिरेण यदुक्तं ततः प्रतीयते यत् खी० पू० २५ शतके पाण्डवानां राज्यमासीत् । अस्मिन् काले सप्तर्षयो मचासु आसन् । मतमिदं वृद्धगर्गमतमनुसरतीति उत्पलो बभाषे । परन्तु वृद्धगर्गक्चते (कलिद्धापरयोः सन्धौः…) यत् सन्धीति पदं तस्यार्थः प्रथमं वर्षसहस्रमिति । अर्थोऽयमज्ञातप्रायो जातः । गर्गवराहमिहिरमतानुसारिणा कल्हणेनोक्तं यद् भारतयुद्धं प्रायेण २४४८ खी० पू० काले संजातमिति ।
- [९] युद्धकालिवधे हे मते सिद्धे—स्त्री० पू० २५ शतकम्, स्त्री० पू० १०-९ शतकं च । अनयोरेकतरं मतमेव सत्यमित्येकः पक्षः । भरतवंशीयानां हे युद्धे अभूतां विभिन्ने काले— इत्यपरः पक्षः । हितीय पक्ष एव ज्यायानिति प्रतीयते । स्त्री० पू० २५ शतककालिके युद्धे लौहास्त्राणि न व्यवहर्तुं शक्यानि । युद्धमिदं सिन्धुसंस्क्रतिसंबद्धम् ऋग्वेदसंबद्धं च भवितुमहंति । ऋग्वेदकालः स्त्री० पू० २५ शतकं प्रायेणेति प्रमागभुतामं भिनुत्तःं मनम् ।

खी० पू० १० शतके यद् भारतयुद्धं जातं तत्र लौहास्त्रयोगः कृतः । अस्मिन् काले द्वारकापुरी समुद्रगर्भेलीना बभूव—महाभारतोकतं मतिमवं पुरातत्त्वशास्त्र-दृष्ट्यापि सिद्धं भवित । भारतवंशीयैः कृतयोद्वयोर्युद्धयोः स्मृतिर् अर्वाक्काले संकीर्णा जाता—एकेन सह संबद्धं वस्तु अपरेण संबद्धं कृतिमिति व्यक्तं प्रतीयते । यद्यनु-सन्धानेनेवं सिद्धं स्याद् यत् खी० पू० २१०२ वर्षेऽपि भारतानां किमिप युद्धं जातिमित तिहं तद् वैदिकसंस्कृतिकालिकं स्यात्, सिन्धुसभ्यताकालिकं वा । पुरातत्त्वविदः सिन्धुसभ्यतायाः प्राथमिकविकासस्य कालः खी० पू० २२ शतकं मन्यन्ते ।

उपर्युक्ते मतेऽभ्युपगते द्वितीयशास्त्रीयवर्गाणां मतानि समन्वितानि भवन्ति । भरतनामधेया जना अतिप्राचीनाः, भरतानां तिस्नः शास्त्रा यथाकालं त्रीणि युद्धानि कृतवत्यः । महाभारतस्य त्रीणि आरम्भस्थलानि १०३०६ ४० नंधन्येति शक्यते वक्तुम् । महाभारतान्त्तमरचनाकाले युद्धत्रयविवरणानि एकपुद्धविवरणपराणि जातानि । पुलकेशिशिलालेखेऽपि ईदुश्येव स्थितिः ।

[१०] युद्धमिदं कविकल्पनाप्रभवं पारिवारिककलहमात्रं वेति न कथियतुं शक्यते । कौटिलीयार्थशास्त्रं काद्यन भारतकथा वृष्टान्तस्त्र्पेण निर्दिष्टाः, पाणिनि-नाऽपि महाभारतशब्दो व्युत्पादितः । आश्वलायनगृह्यसूत्रे भारत-महाभारतशब्दौ प्रयुक्तौ । अत इदं सिद्धं यन्महाभारतकथा स्त्री० पू० ७-८ शतककाले विज्ञातासीत् । कुश्क्षेत्रयुद्धं साद्भारतस्त्र्यं स्मृतम् । सूत्रग्रन्थधृतगाथासु यमुनाशाल्वराज-युगन्धरादीनां महाभारतसंबद्धानामुल्लेखो दृश्यते; ब्राह्मणेषु संहितास्विप महाभारसंबद्धा केचन जना नामतो निर्दिष्टाः । भारतयुद्धं कविकल्पनाप्रभवं नेत्येभिः प्रमाणैर्विज्ञायते ।

भविष्यपुराणीय-ब्रह्मपर्वणः ४०-४४ तमा अध्यायाः

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भिविष्यपुराणं चतुःपर्वविभक्तम् । ब्राह्मपर्वगत-४०-४४ अध्यायोका विषया न पुराणान्तरेषूपलभ्यन्ते, जन्मिनिम्तकब्राह्मणज्येष्ठत्वस्य विरोधोऽत्र कृतः, वृत्ता-चाराधीनत्वं च ब्राह्मणत्वस्येति प्रतिपादितम् । न पुराणान्तरे न वास्य पुराणस्य भागान्तरे मतिमदं दृश्यते । उपर्युक्ताध्यायगता विषयाः, तेषां पौर्वापर्यं चात्र विचार्यन्ते ।

आपस्तम्बधर्मसूत्रे भविष्यत्-पुराणगतं किञ्चित् धर्मशास्त्रीयविषयपरकं वाक्यमुद्धृतम् । वाक्यस्यास्य उपलब्धपुराणेन सह न कश्चित् सम्बन्धोऽवलोक्यते । प्राचीनतरं भविष्यत्पुराणं कियतांशेन उपलब्धपुराणस्य मूल मिति न ज्ञायते ।

भविष्यपुराणगतिवयाणां विवरणं मत्स्य-अग्नि-नारदीयपुराणेषु दृश्यते— विवरणेषु ऐकमत्यं पुन नांस्ति । प्राचीनतरं भविष्यत्-पुराणं बदुधा परिवर्तितम्, ततस्वेदं नवीनं भविष्यपुराणं जातमिति प्रतीयते । प्रचलितपुराणस्य बहवोंआ न पूर्वाचार्ये विज्ञाता इति दृश्यते ।

भविष्यपुराणस्य ब्राह्मपर्वं पवीन्तरापेक्षया प्राचीनम् । एतत्पर्वंगताः श्लोका निवन्धग्रन्थेषुद्धृताः । ब्रह्मपर्वंगता उपर्युक्ता पञ्च अध्याया न पश्चात् संयोजिताः । भविष्यपुराणस्य मूलभूते रूपे इमेऽध्याया आसित्तित प्रमाणैनिश्चीयते । परवितिन काले इमेऽध्यायाः प्रक्षिप्ता इति सम्भावना नापलनीया, यत एषामध्यायानां कश्चिन्नेदिष्ठः सम्बन्धः पूर्ववितिभः परवितिभश्च अध्यायैः सह नोपलभ्यते । एत-दध्यायगताः कलोका अपि न क्वचिद् उद्धृताः । एतद्ध्यायप्रतिपादित्विषये हाजरामहोदयस्य यन्मतं तदत्र समीक्षितं लेखकेन । ४० तमाध्याय-विषयाणां संगतिकत्र विचारिता प्राक्-पश्चात्तनाध्यायैः सहास्य सम्बन्धश्च दिश्वतः ।

उपर्युक्तेषु अध्यायेषु वर्णव्यवस्थाविषये योदा रवृष्टिः (वेदज्ञानं ब्राह्मणत्व-ज्ञापकं, न कुलम्, न जन्म) सा वज्जसूच्यामपि दृश्यते । वर्णानां चार्तुविध्यं, तेषां यथाकममवरत्वं, वर्णकर्तव्यानि च अस्मिन् मतेऽपि स्वीकृतानि भवन्ति ।

वज्जसूचीमतेन सहास्ति किञ्चिद् वैषम्यम् । परन्तु तद् ग्रन्थप्रकृतिहेतुकमिति मन्तव्यम् । किं च पुराणवचनानि न दार्शनिकग्रन्थवचनानीव तीक्ष्णानि भवितु-मर्हन्ति । न वर्णेषु विशेष इति वज्जसूची, परस्परभिन्ना वर्णा इति भविष्यपुराणस् ।

भविष्यपुराण-वज्रसूची-ग्रन्थयोः सन्ति सद्शस्थलानि—अत्यन्तसदृश-स्थलानि च । अतो गम्यते एकेनापरः प्रभावितः । केन कः प्रभावितः इति सम्यग् निर्धारियतुं न शक्यतेः कालदृष्ट्या वज्रसूची प्राचीनतरेति विज्ञायते। अनया पुराणं प्रभावितिमिति भतं युक्तं प्रतिभाति । भविष्यपुराणस्याधमणंत्वे सन्ति हेतवः । अत्रत्यः कश्चिदपि रलोको न निबन्धग्रन्थकारैस्द्धृतः । एतेनापि एषामध्यायानाम-वीक्कालिकत्वं सिद्धम् ।

अश्वघोषेण भविष्यपुराणमाश्चित्य वज्रसूची प्रणीतेति त शक्यते वन्तुम् । वज्रसूचीप्रतिपादितं मतं पालिसाहित्येऽपि दृश्यते, अतः पालिसाहित्यम् आश्चित्य अश्वघोषः स्वमनीषिकया वज्रसूचीं प्रणिनायेति मतं युक्तरं भवति । वज्जसूच्यां या प्रतिपादनरीतिराश्चिता, सा भविष्यपुराणकारेण विज्ञातासीदिति पुराणवचन-विज्ञोषेण विज्ञायते । भविष्यपुराणस्य उपर्युक्ताः पञ्चाध्यायाः पुराणेतरशास्त्रप्रेरिता इत्यत्र लिङ्गमस्ति । नेमे पुराणस्य मूलरूपे आसन् । पुराणे यत् 'सतर्कं योगेश्वरकथनम्' इत्युक्तं तेन वज्जसूच्येव लक्षितेति प्रतीयते। यथा मनुसंहितादयो ग्रन्था भविष्य-पुराणकारेण समाश्रिताः, तथा वज्रसूच्यपि—इति कथनं नासङ्गतं भवति ।

भविष्यपुराणरचनाकालस्य पूर्वसीमा खीष्टीयं पञ्चमं शतकमिति हाजरा-महोदयस्य मतं सङ्गतमेव। यत एतद्ध्यायगतानि मतानि प्रचलित-हिन्दूमत-विरुद्धानि, अत एतदध्यायगतः किन्चदिप रलोको न निबन्धग्रन्थकारैरुद्धृत इति ।

स्कन्दपुराणगतकथायाः प्रहेलिकामयं विवरणम्

AN ENIGMATIC DESCRIPTION OF KATHÁ IN THE SKANDA-PURANA

RAM'SHANKAR BHATTACHARYA

स्कन्दपुराणीय-प्रमासखण्डे कथास्वरूपम् अधिकृत्य कानिचन विशेषणानि प्रयुक्तानि, यथा—द्विविधा, द्विशरीरा, दिव्यभाषासमोपेता, वेदाधिष्ठानसंयुक्ता, पञ्चसन्धिसमायुक्ता, षडलङ्कारभूषिता, सप्तसाधनसंगुक्ता, रसाष्ट्रगुणरञ्जिता, नविभागुणिराकाणा, वशदोषविवर्जिता, विभाषाभूषिता, एकायत्ता, मनोहरा, पञ्चकारणसंयुक्ता, चतुष्करणसंमता, द्विविधा, ज्ञानसन्दोहदायिनीति । कथायास् एषां विशेषगानां कथं समन्वयो भवति — इत्यत्र विचारितम्।

कथाहाब्देन नाटचं लक्ष्यते इत्यत्र युक्त्याा निरूपितम्। नाट्यस्य केचन धर्मा एभिविशेषण विशेषिता इत्यत्र लेखे विशदरूपेण दिशतम्। तथाहि-

द्विविधेति शब्देन लोकधर्मी-नाट्यधर्मीति-भेदद्वयं लक्षितम्; प्रयोगद्वैविध्यं वा । द्विशरीरेति-शब्देन द्विविध मित्तिवृत्तं लक्षितम् । दिव्यभाषासमोपेतेतिशब्देन दिञ्यादिभेदत्रयवद् वृत्तं लक्षितम्, दिञ्यादिभेदत्रयवान् नायको वा । वेदाधिष्ठान-ांभुतेतिमाध्येन चत्वारो वेदा लक्षिताः। पञ्चसन्धिसमायुक्तेति शब्देन नाट्यस्य पञ्च सन्धयो लक्षिताः। षडलङ्कारभूषितेतिशब्देन षडलङ्कारसंग्रुतं पाठ्यं लक्षितम् । सप्तसाधनसंयुक्तेतिशब्देन षड्जादि-सप्तस्वरा लक्षिताः । रसाष्ट-गुणरिञ्जतित शब्देन अष्टी रसा लक्षिताः (पाठस्यास्य समीक्षाऽपि कृता)। नवगुणाकीणतिशब्देन प्रेक्षकगता नव गुणा स्रक्षताः। दशदोषविवर्जितेति शब्देन दश काव्यदोषा लक्षिताः । एकायत्ति शब्देन एकरसप्राधान्यं नाट्यस्येति द्शितस् एकनायकप्राधान्यं वा । मनोहरेति शब्देन नाट्यस्य विनोदकरणत्वं लक्षितस् । पञ्चकारणसंयुवतेतिशब्देन नाट्यस्य पञ्च अङ्गानि लक्षितानि पञ्चविधं गानं वा । चतुष्करणसंमतेति शब्देन करणस्य हस्तव्यापारविशेषस्य चातुर्विध्यं लक्षितस्, अथवा पाट्य-गीत-अभिनय-रसाः, वतस्रो वृत्तयः, चतुर्विधमभिनयं वा । द्विविधेति शब्देन द्विविधा सिद्धिलक्षिता । ज्ञानसन्दोहदायिनीति-शब्देन नाट्यस्य त्रिवांस्साधनत्वं लक्षितमिति ।

पुराणपञ्चलक्षण-ग्रन्थान्तर्गत-प्रथमपरिच्छेद-प्रथमपाठवर्गस्य समीक्षात्मकं विश्लेषणम्

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF 1ST ABSCHNITT, TEXT-GROUP I OF THE PURĀŅA PAÑCALAKṢAŅA

S. JENA

पुराणग्रन्थविश्लेषणाय किरफिल-विदुषा कञ्चिन् न्याय्यं मार्गमाश्रित्य मूल-पुराण-स्वरूप-निर्धारणाय प्रयतितम्; एतदर्थं तेन पञ्च पुराणलक्षणानि सर्ग-प्रतिसर्ग-वंश-मन्वन्तर-वंशानुचरिताख्यानि विवेचितानि । इमानि लक्षणानि सर्वेषु पुराणेषु उपवृहितानीति दृश्यते । मूलभूते पुराणे व्रततीर्थादिपरकाणि विवरणानि परवर्तिनि काले संयोजितानि—इति निश्चप्रचम् ।

किरफिलप्रणीते Das Purāņa Pañcalakṣaṇa ग्रन्थे इमानि लक्षणानि चतुर्षु परिच्छेदेषु विभज्य विवेचितानि । सर्ग-प्रतिसर्गी एकस्मिन् परिच्छेदे, इतराणि त्रीणि लक्षणानि त्रिषु परिच्छेदेषु ।

लेखेऽस्मिन् प्रथमपरिच्छेदान्तर्गतं प्रथमं प्रकरणमाश्रित्य दुरूहास्पष्टार्थक-विषयाणां विद्यदीकरणाय किमपि विचार्यते संहिता-ब्राह्मणोपनिषदां साहायकेन । प्रकरणेऽस्मिन् सर्गपरा अग्नि-ब्रह्म-हरिवंद्य-शिवपुराणोक्ताः क्लोका विवेचिताः ।

ब्रह्माण्डसृष्टिपरकाः षट् पुराणश्लोकाः (१०-१५) प्राचीनतमा इति निश्चितम् (इमे श्लोका अत्र उद्घृताः) । अत्रत्या दृष्टिर्नासदीये सुक्ते प्राजापत्यसूक्ते (त्रहग्वेदीये) चोपलभ्यते, तैत्तिरीयसंहितायां रातपथ-तैत्तिरीय-ब्राह्मणयोश्च । पौराणिकीदृष्टिवैदिकदृष्टेरीषद् भिन्ना । अप्सु वीर्याधानं पुराणेष्वेव उक्तम् । प्रकरणेऽस्मिन् नारायणशब्दस्य या निरुक्तिदीशता सा प्रक्षिप्तेति वेदितव्यम् । एतदनन्तरं त्रयः पुराणक्लोकाः (२१-२३) उद्धृताः; उक्तं च—पुराण-क्लोकानाम् आंशिकं सादृश्यं पुरुषसूक्ते लक्षणीयम् । सूक्तस्यास्य प्रभाव एषु क्लोकेषु अस्तीति स्वीकार्यमेव ।

एतदनन्तरं मानसप्रजासृष्टिपराः पञ्च क्लोकाः (१६-२०) उद्घृताः; उक्तं च—सप्तर्षीणाम् उल्लेख ऋग्वेदेऽपि दृश्यते, तनपथ-शाङ्खायनः निषु च । बृहदारण्य-कोक्तानि ऋषिनामानि पुराणोक्तनामिः सहांशतो भिन्नानि । स्वयंकृतं मैथुनं वृहदारण्यक उक्तम्, न तु पुराणेषु ।

एतदनन्तरं एकं पुराणक्लोकम् (२६) उद्धृत्य उक्तम्—अत्र विराट्-कृता मनुमुष्टिरुक्ता, विष्णुतो विराज उत्पत्तिश्व । अत्र ऋङ्मन्त्रविशेषस्य प्रभावोज्न-लोकतीयः । पुरुष-विराजोरसङ्गतः संबन्धः (अन्योन्योत्पादकरूपः) न पुराणक्लोके उक्तः । क्लोकोऽयं प्रक्षिप्त इति गम्यते ।

प्रथमप्रकरणगतेषु पुराणक्लोकेषु ये चत्वारो विषया उक्ताः, ते वेदोपनिषत् प्रतिपादिता इति दृश्यते । पुराणिवरचनात् प्राग् इमानि मतानि चिन्तितानि आर्थैः । पुराणरचनाकाले सांख्यमतं प्रवलतरं जातम्; मतेऽस्मिन प्रकृति-पुरुषौ पुष्यौ पदार्थौः; ततश्च महदादीनामुत्पत्तिः । पुराणक्लोकेषु (प्रकरणेऽस्मिन् उद्कृतेषु) सांख्यमतप्रभावो देदीप्यत एव । केनचिद् अविकृतालिकेन पुराणप्रणेत्रा मूलपुराण-क्लोकेषु सांख्यमतानुराञ्जताः क्लोकाः प्रक्षिप्ताः । मूलभूतेषु पुराणक्लोकेषु सांख्यप्रभावो नासीदिति हैकरमहोदयस्य मतम् ।

पञ्चलाङ्गलं वतम् PAÑCHLÄÑGAL VRATA Mrs. Kala D. ACHARYA

सन्ति पुराणेषु कानिचन व्रतानि यानीदानीम् अप्रचलितानि जातानि । एतादृशेषु व्रतेषु पञ्चलाङ्गलनामध्यं व्रतमन्यतमम् । मस्यपुराणे भविष्यपुराणे च व्रतामिदमुपर्वाणतम् । व्रतेऽस्मिन् भूमि-लाङ्गल्यानं विहितम् । देयस्य लाङ्गल्या, भूमेश्च स्वरूपं परिमाणं च पुराणे प्रोक्तम् । कार्तिके वैशासे वा मासि व्रतिमदम् ममुज्ञेप्रमिरयुक्तम् । एतद्व्रतसंबन्धीनि ब्राह्मणभोजनादीनि कर्माणि अप्यत्रोक्तानि, मन्त्राश्च दिशताः, व्रतफलमपि चोक्तम् ।

पञ्चलाङ्गलब्रतसदृशानि कर्माणि महादानान्तमू तानि । गुप्तनूपितकाले तत्परवर्तिकाले चैतानि दानान्यनुष्टितान्यासित्रिति विश्वायते । गण्डरादित्यनामा शिलाहारनृपतिव्र तमिदम् अनुष्ठितवान् ख्रीष्टीयद्वादशशताञ्चामिति इतिवृत्तविदः ।

सर्वभारतीय-काशिराजन्यासस्य कार्यविवरणम्

(जनवरी-जून १९८६)

गरुडपुराणसंबन्धि कार्यम्

गरुडपुराणस्य आचारकाण्डस्य द्वयोवं ङ्गलिपिहस्तलेखयोः पाठसंवादकार्यं प्रचलति । एकस्य अपरस्य वङ्गलिपिकोशस्य पाठसंवादकार्यंमिप अपूर्णं वर्तते । हिन्दूविश्वविद्यालये सुरक्षितयोः द्वयोः शारदालिपिहस्तलेखयोरिप अद्यावधि प्राप्तिर्नाभूत् । इमौ हस्तलेखौ शारदालिप्यां वर्तते । अनयोः एकः हस्तलेखः आचारकाण्डस्य अपरस्य प्रेतकाण्डस्यास्ति ।

अस्मिन्नवधौ प्रेतकल्पस्य एकस्य देवनागरोहस्तलेखस्यापि पाठसंवादकार्यं सम्पन्नम् । एष हस्तलेखः गवर्नमेण्ट ओरियण्टङ मैनुस्क्रिप्ट्स लाईव्रेरी मद्रास नगरतः प्राप्तः । अन्येषां हस्तलेखानामन्वेषणं क्रियते ।

गरुडपुराणस्य अन्यैः पुराणैः इतिहासग्रन्थाभ्यां च सह विषयसंवादकार्य-मपि प्रचरति ।

स्कन्दपुराणस्य मानसखण्डस्य सम्पादनम्

अग्निमदशाध्यायानां (४१-५०) पाठसम्पादनं पूर्णंमस्मिन् अवधौ । अस्मिन् अङ्के विरात्यध्यायानां (३१-५०) प्रकाशनं क्रियते ।

शिवधर्मोत्तरपुराणसंबन्धि कार्यम्

अद्याविध शिवधर्मोत्तरस्य सप्तदशहस्तलेखानामवाप्तिर्जाता । अद्याविध अस्य पुराणस्य आधारपाठः, द्वयोर्हस्तलेखयोः (एको देवनागरीलिप्यामन्यश्च नेवारीलिप्यां) पाठसंवादकार्यमिप रामनगरस्थे पुराणिवभागे पूर्णतामियात् । अस्य सम्पादकः डा० बोनाजोली अस्मिन् वर्षे कियत्कालं स्वदेशे इटलीनाम्नि आसीत्, तत्रापि तेन आधारपाठो लिखितः, द्वयोः नेवारीलिपिहस्तलेखयोः पाठसंवादकार्यमिप कृतम् ।

वेद-पारायणम्

माघमासस्य सम्पूर्णे शुक्लपक्षे रामनगरडुगैस्थिते व्यासेववरमन्दिरे संहिता-ब्राह्मणारण्यकोपनिषदन्वितायाः सम्पूर्णायाः तैत्तिरीयशाखायाः स्मृत्याधारेण पारायणं श्री वे० राजगोपालधनपाठिमहोदयेन कृतम् । श्री तः रणवाणि स्मृत्या भागः श्रोता आसीत् । पारायणसमासौ पारायणस्य कर्त्रे श्रोत्रे च यथानिर्विष्टा दक्षिणा प्रमाणपत्रादिकं प्रदत्तम्, भोजनं च ।

पुराणविभागे आगता विद्वांसः

अस्मिन् अवधौ अधोनिर्दिष्टा विद्वांसः पुराणविभागे आगताः, अत्रत्यस्य कार्यजातेन परिचायिनाञ्च--

- १. श्रीवीरेन ब्रह्मभट्ट, अहमदाबाद ।
- २. डा० जुडिथ बैकर, मिशिगन (अमेरिका) विश्वविद्यालयस्य संगीत-विद्यालयस्थः---२.२.८६ दिनाङ्कः ।
- ३. डा० डेनिवल कोडर--मानविकी इनडाउमेण्ट वार्शिगटन इत्यस्य अनुसंधानप्रभागस्थः - २.२.८६ दिनाङ्के ।
- ४. जगद्गुरवः काञ्चीकामकोटिपीठाधिपतयः शङ्कराचार्याः श्री जयेन्द्र-सरस्वतीमहाभागाः---२१.४.८६ दिनाङ्के ।

जगद्गुरवः पुराणानां पाठसमीक्षितसंस्करणानां पुराणपत्रिकायाश्च सूक्ष्मान्वेषणं कृतवन्तः । पुराणकार्यंजातमाशीर्वचोभिरभिनन्दितवन्तश्च ।

काञ्चोकामकोटिपीठाधिपतयः शङ्कराचार्याः रामनगरदुर्गे निवसिताः

स्ववाराणसीनिवासस्य समाप्तौ जगद्गुरवः काञ्चीकामकोटिपीठाधिपतयः शङ्कराचार्याः जयेन्द्रसरस्वतीयहाभागाः २० अप्रेल १९८६ दिनाङ्कस्य सायंकाले रामनगरदुर्गमागताः। ते २१ अप्रैलदिनाङ्कस्य सायंकाले रामनगरदुर्गात् प्रस्थिताः, अतः हरद्वारं प्रति प्रतस्थिरे। २१ अप्रैल दिनाङ्कस्य प्रातःकाले जगद्गुरुभिः स्वपादक्षेपैः दुर्गस्य प्रत्येकं स्थानानि पवित्रीकृतानि। पुराणविभागोऽपि जगद्गुरूणां भ्रमणेन पवित्रीकृतः ।

महाराज-उदितनारायणिसह-मानसप्रचारिनिधः मानसनवाहपाठः

वैशाखमासस्य शुक्लपक्षे प्रतिपत्तिथिमारभ्य नवमीं तिर्षि यावत् (९ मई दिनाङ्कमारभ्य १९ मई १९८६ दिनाङ्क यावत्) चिकयानगरस्थिते काळीमिन्दरे रामचरितमानसस्य पारायणं तदुपरि प्रवचनं च प्रथितैः व्यासैः कृतम् । प्रतिदिनं श्रोतृणां महती संख्या प्रवचनश्रवणमकरोत् । तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा महाराजा डार्व विभूतिनारायणशर्ममहोदया अधिकांशप्रवचनदिनेषु दक्षिणभारते ती**र्य-**यात्रायामासन् । तीर्थयात्रासमाप्ती द्वयोः दिनयोः (१६,१७ मई दिनाङ्क्रुयोः) महाराजकुमारः श्री अनन्तनारायणसिंहमहोदयः प्रवचने उपस्थितः आसीत्। अन्तिमयोर्द्वयो दिनयोः (१८-१९ मई दिनाङ्कयोः) महाराजा डा॰ विभूतिनारायण-सिंहमहोदया प्रवचने उपस्थिता आसन् । व्यासेषु डा॰ श्री नाथिमश्रः प्रमुख आसीत् येन अन्तिमेषु त्रिषु दिनेषु (१७-१९ मई १९८६) तत्र प्रवचनं कृतम् । पारायणसमाप्तौ 'भण्डारा' (बृहद्-भोजनोत्मवः) सम्पन्नः ।

काशीविश्वनाथस्य सहस्रघटाभिषेकः

वर्षत्रयपूर्वं श्री काशीविश्वनाथस्य लिङ्गस्थानात् चौरैः स्वर्णचौर्यं अन्वेषणकर्मीण अनहीं: जनाश्च मन्दिरे प्रविष्टा लिङ्गस्पर्शादिकं च चकुः; तेषामपराधानां क्षमापनार्थं देवत्वरक्षणार्थं च चैत्रमासस्य शुक्लपक्षस्य पञ्चमीं तिथिमारभ्य सप्तमीं तिथि यावत् (१४-१६ अप्रैल १९८६ दिनांकेषु) अग्निपुराणोक्तविधना ईश्वरसंहितोक्तप्रकारेण च विश्वनाथस्य अष्टोत्तरसहस्रघट-स्नपनं शान्तिहोमश्च तत्रभवद्भिः काशिनरेशैः महाराजै विश्वनाथमन्दिरन्यासा-ध्यक्षैः डा० विभूतिनारायणशर्ममहोदयैः सम्पादिते । एषा क्रिया काशिविश्वनाथ-न्यासस्य सदस्यस्य आगमविधिज्ञस्य श्री लक्ष्मीशंकर गौरीशंकर शा० शुक्लमहो-दयस्याचार्यत्वे सम्पादिता । काञ्चीकामकोटिपीठाधिपतयो जगद्गुरवः शंकराचार्याः श्री जयेन्द्रसरस्वतीमहाभागाः सर्वस्मिन् कार्यजाते उपस्थिता आसन् उचितिनर्देशं च दत्तवन्तः। लखनऊ नगरात् उत्तरप्रदेशशासनस्य विधिसचिवः श्री श्रीनाथसहाय-महोदयः अन्तिमे दिने अष्टोत्तरशतघटस्नपनावसरे विशेषरूपेण उपस्थितः आसीत् । श्रृङ्गेरो राङ्कराचार्याणामधिकृतः प्रतिनिधिः श्री चेल्लालक्ष्मणशास्त्री महोदयोऽपि सर्विस्मन्नवसरे उपस्थितः आसीत् । श्री काशीविद्वत्परिषदादिसंस्थाभिः प्रदत्तव्यव-स्थानुसारेण काशिनरेशैः महाराजैः डाक्टरविभूतिनारायणशर्ममहोदयैः गर्भगृहात् बहिः स्थित्वा एवं सम्पूर्णं कार्यजातं सम्पादितम् ।

न्यासाध्यक्षाणां दक्षिणभारतयात्रा

न्यासाध्यक्षास्तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा महाराज डा० विभूतिनारायणिसह-शर्ममहोदयाः महाराजकुमारेण श्री अनन्त नारायणिसहेन तिसृभिमंहाराज-कुमारीभिश्च सह ३ मई दिनाङ्कमारम्भ ११ मई दिनाङ्कं यावत् दक्षिणभारतस्य यात्रां चकुः। एषा तेषां प्रथमा दक्षिणभारतयात्रा आसीत्। तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा मद्रासस्यित मीनम्बक्कम् वायुयानावरोहस्थाने (Airport) शङ्करभक्तजनसभायाः प्रतिनिधिभिरन्येश्च संस्कृतविद्वद्भिद्धः अभिनन्दिताः पुष्पहारेश्च सत्कृताः। मद्रास-नगरे रात्रौ उषित्वा तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशाः काश्चीकामकोटिपीठाधीश्वराणां जगद्गुरुणां शङ्कराचार्याणां श्री चन्द्रशेखरेन्द्रसरस्वतीस्वामिपादानां दर्शनार्थं काश्ची-पुरं प्रस्थिताः। तत्रभवन्तः प्रथितं 'फीमिना व्रिजम'नु गताः, वङ्गखातस्य 'दर्शनम्' अपि कृतम्।

काञ्चीपुरम्

तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा सद्यः अविलम्बेन काञ्चीपुरम् गताः सप्येव जगद्गुरूणां दर्शनं च कृतवन्तः। प्रारम्भिक-कुशलक्षेमानन्तरं मठे एव निर्धारिते भवने विश्रमार्थमागताः। महाराजा दिनद्वयं मठे एवं यापयामासुः, केवलं रात्र्योः काञ्चीपुरे अवसन्। महाराजाः प्रातःकाले दुर्गायाः प्राचीनतमे मन्दिरे दर्शनार्थं गताः, सायंकाले च कामाक्षीदेव्या दर्शनं चकुः। ते स्वर्णनिर्मितरथस्यापि दर्शनं चकुः। अस्मिन् अवसरे महाराजानां कृते विशिष्टा पूजाजिप सम्पादिता।

५ मई १९८६ दिनाङ्कस्य प्रातःकाले प्रातःसन्ध्यादिकं वेदपाठं च निवंत्यं तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा 'एकाम्रेश्वर' शिवस्य दर्शनं चकुः । ते काञ्चीपुरस्थिते विशालतमे विष्णुमन्दिरे वरदराजमन्दिरे अपि देवदर्शनं चकुः ।

५ मई ८६ दिनाङ्के राङ्करभक्तजनसभा-द्वारा तत्रभवतां काशिनरेशानामभिनन्दनं कृतं यस्मिन् जगद्दगुरवः श्रीमञ्चन्द्रशेखरेन्द्रस्वाभिपादाः किनिष्ठकंकराचार्या श्रीशङ्करेन्द्रसरस्वतीमहाभागाश्च उपस्थिता आसन् । जगद्गुरदः श्री
जयेन्द्रसरस्वतीमहाभागा एतस्मिन् अवसरे हरद्वारनामके तीर्थ आसन्, अतस्ते
जयेन्द्रसरस्वतीमहाभागा एतस्मिन् अवसरे हरद्वारनामके तीर्थ आसन्, अतस्ते
उपस्थिता नासन् । अस्मिन् अभिनन्दनोत्सवे विशिष्टा संस्कृतिवद्वासः काञ्चीपुरनगरपालिकाया प्रमुखः तथा तामिलनाडुशासनस्य गृहसचिवः उपस्थिता आसन् । तैर्महापालिकाया प्रमुखः तथा तामिलनाडुशासनस्य गृहसचिवः उपस्थिता आसन् । तैर्महाराजानामभिनन्दनं कृतम् । शङ्करभक्तजनसभाद्वारा प्रकाजितस्य 'त्रिवेणी' नामकस्य
राज्यस्योद्वाटन तत्रभवद्धिः काशिनरेशैरिस्मनुत्सवे विहितम् । एप ग्रन्थो जगद्
गृहणां शङ्कराचार्याणामाशीर्वचनेरलंकृत आसीत् । अस्मन् अवसरे काशिनरेशैः
स्वपूर्वजानां काञ्चोमठेन सह संबन्धस्य स्मरणं कृतम्, स्मारितं च पितामहानां

सर प्रभुनारायणसिंहमहाभागानां काञ्चीयात्राया वृत्तान्तम्, जगद्गुरूणां शंकरा-चार्याणां काशीयात्राया वृत्तान्तम् च । काशिनरेशैः भणितं यद् दक्षिणभारतस्य उत्तरभारतस्य च कोटेजंनानां आध्यात्मिकाभ्युत्थानस्य कृते अनेन मठेन महान् प्रयासः कृतः । मठोऽयं विदुषां साधृनां साधकानां च कृते प्रेरणास्त्रोतो विद्यते ।

काशिनरेशाः ६ मई दिनाङ्के कारद्वारा 'रामेश्वर' दर्शनार्थं प्रस्थिताः । अस्या यात्रायाः व्यवस्था श्रीमद्भिः शंकराचार्यपादैः कृता । चिङ्गल्पेट-जनपदस्य अधिकारिणः, काञ्चोपुरम्-नगरस्य नागरिकाः मठस्याधिकारिणश्च तत्रभवतां काशिनरेशानां निवासस्य पूजायाश्च सौविष्यार्थं समीचोनां व्यवस्थां कृतवन्तः ।

रामेश्वरम्

मद्रासनगरात् तत्रभवन्तः रेलयानस्य विशिष्ठे कक्षे (bogie) स्थित्वा रामेश्वरस्थानं गताः । तत्र ७ मई १९८६ दिनाङ्कस्य प्रातःकाले तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा प्राप्ताः लक्ष्मणकुण्डे स्नानं कृत्वा संध्यादिकं पारायणं चानुष्ठितवन्तः । तदनन्तरं समुद्रं गत्वा सागरस्नानं चक्रुः, काञ्चीकामकोटिपीठस्य शंकरमठे शास्त्रानुसारतः तीर्थंकृत्यं श्राद्धं च सम्पादितवन्तः । तत्रभविद्धः काशिनरेशैः तोर्थंपुरोहितेभ्यः दक्षिणा, निधंनेभ्यः दानं च दत्तम् । तस्मिन्नेव दिनेऽपराह्णे मद्रासनगराय रेलयानेन प्रस्थिताः ।

वैङ्गलोर

श्रुङ्गरोमठस्य जगद्गुरवः शङ्करावार्याः शङ्कराजयन्त्युत्सवप्रसङ्गेन वैङ्गलोरनगरे शङ्करमठे स्थिता आसन्। अतः तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा मद्रासनगरात् शङ्करावार्याणां दर्शनार्थं वैङ्गलोरनगरं रेलयानेन गताः। रेलयानम् मद्रासनगरात्
वैङ्गलोरनगरं ९ जुलाई दिनाङ्कस्य प्रातःकाले समागतम्। जगद्गुरूणां प्रतिविधिमिस्तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशाः रेलयानविश्राम (स्टेशन) स्थाने अभिनन्दिताः।
शङ्करमठस्य अतिथिभवने च नीता यत्र तेषां विश्रामस्य व्यवस्थासीत्। आगमनानन्तरं अविलम्बेन जगद्गुरुभिः सह काशिनरेशा मिलिताः। अपराह्वे शङ्करजयन्त्युत्सवस्य एका सभा संपन्ना यस्यां काशिनरेशाः प्रमुखातिथय आसन् । अस्यां
सभायां काशिनरेशानामभिनन्दनं कृतम्। जगद्गुरूणां प्रधानभक्ता अस्मिन् अवसरे
महाराजानामभिनन्दनं चक्रः। अस्मिन् अवसरे काशिनरेशाः स्वभाषणे जगद्गुरूल्
प्रति स्वकृतज्ञतां विज्ञापयामासुः, विशेषतः एतिक्रमिन्तं यद् जगद्गुरूणामेव
निर्देशानुसारतो महाराजकृमान्त्य श्री अनन्तनारायणसिहस्य यथार्थ-भारतीयपरम्परानुसारतः पालनं न्यायशास्त्रस्य पाठनं च जातम्। तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा
मठे स्थितायाः शारदादेव्या दर्शनमित् चक्रुः।

१० मई १९८६ दिनाङ्के तत्रभवन्तः काज्ञिनरेजाः शृङ्गेरीमठं प्रति प्रस्थिताः किनष्ठस्वामिपादाः शङ्कराचार्याः मठे एवं स्थिता आसन् ।

शृङ्गेरी

शृङ्गेरीगमनानन्तरं तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशाः किनष्ठस्वामिपादानां नृसिह-मठे दर्शनं चक्रुः। शृङ्गेरीमठेऽपि शङ्करजयंन्त्युत्सवः समायोजित आसीत्। सायंकाले महाराजा अत्र सभायामुपस्थिता आसन् यस्यां स्वामिपादान् प्रति कृतज्ञतां ज्ञापयामासुः। तस्यामेव संध्यायां स्वामिपादेभ्योऽनुज्ञां प्राप्य बङ्गलोरनगरं प्रति प्रस्थिताः; ११ मई १९८६ दिनाङ्के प्रातःकाले बङ्गलोरनगरमागताच्च। वैङ्गलोरनगरमागत्य काशिनरेशा हरिद्वारे अक्षयतृतीयातिथौ कुम्भावसरे गङ्गा-पूजनार्थं विश्वस्वामिपादानामनुज्ञामाशीर्वादं च गृहीत्वा तस्मिन् एव दिने अपराह्णे महाराजा स्वपरिवारण सह वायुयान-द्वारा दिल्लीनगरं प्रस्थिता यस्मात् स्थानात् ते हरिद्वारं गन्तुकामा आसन्।

हरिद्वारम्

तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशाः ११ मई १९८६ दिनाङ्के हिरिद्वारं गत्वा कुम्भस्नानं विधाय गङ्गां पूजयामासुः। अत्र कुम्भस्नानार्थम् अवस्थितानां जगद्गुरूणां शङ्करा-चार्याणां श्री जयेन्द्रसरस्वतीमहाभागानामिष दर्शनं चक्रुः। महाराजाः परिवारेण सह गङ्गाया आरात्रिक मिष अवलोकयामासुः।

व्यास उवाच ।*

काश्यपीरथवाहिन्योर्मध्ये वै ऋषिसत्तमाः । वृद्धकेदारसंज्ञं वै देवं संपूज्य मानवः । शिवलोकमवाप्नोति यज्ञकोटिफलं लभेत् ॥ १ ॥ काश्यपी वामभागे वै वृद्धकेदारसंज्ञकम् । संपूज्य मानवः सम्यक् कुलैः त्रिदशिभर्युतः । शिवलोकमवाप्नोति शृद्धकस्यानिषेवितः ॥ २ ॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे वृद्धकेदारमाहात्म्ये एक्तित्रहोऽध्यायः ॥ ३१ ॥

^{*} ने1. \odot . २. -d) ने3 युतं (\rightarrow युतः). -f) ने3 [°]निषेवितःं (\rightarrow °निषेवितः). पुष्ठिपका—ने1.3 [°]निश्राितसो°, ने2 [°]निश्रातमो° (\rightarrow °निश्राें°).

व्यास उवाच ।

वामे वै रथवाहिन्याः पण्या द्रोणाद्रिसंभवा । द्रोणी नाम सरिच्छ्रेष्ठा संमिलन् मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ १॥ तयोः सङ्गममध्ये वै पुण्ये द्रोणहृदे शुभे । निमज्य मानवः सम्यग् वसुभिः स प्रसेव्यते ॥ २ ॥ ब्रह्मपरो नाम पर्वतः समुदाहृतः। तत्र सूमनोहरः ॥ ३ ॥ देवर्षिगणगन्धर्वै: सेवित: तस्य कक्षे महाभागाः प्रौढाख्यो वै महासरः। शोभनाद्यैः शिवगणैः सेवितः सुमनोहरः॥४॥ यं ब्रह्मा रचयामास प्रौढाख्यं हि महासरम्। मन्दाकिन्या जलैः पूर्णं देविषगणसेवितम् ॥ ५ ॥ तत्र स्नात्वा च मनुजो दशपूर्वान् दशोत्तरान्। संतार्य ब्रह्मभवने वासं प्राप्नोति वै द्विजाः ॥ ६ ॥

ऋषय ऊचुः ।

प्रौढाख्यं हि सरं ब्र्स्त् विरचत् (?) केन हेतुना । केन वै देवगन्धर्वाः सेवयन्ति महासरम् ॥ ७॥

व्यास उवाच ।

तिस्मन् ब्रह्मगिरौ पुण्ये गर्गो नाम महातपाः । समाश्रित्य तपस्तेपे तोषयन् कमलासनम् ॥ ८॥ ततः कालेन वै विप्रास्तस्मै तुष्टः प्रजापितः । हंसमारुह्य वेगेन दशैयामास दर्शनम् ॥ ९॥

१. -a) ने1 °वाहिन्या(→°वाहिन्याः). -b) ने1.3 द्रौणािव°(→द्रोणाद्रि°). -c)ने2 द्रौणी(→द्रोणी). -d) ने1°सत्तमा(→°सत्तमाः). -c. -b) ने1 द्रौणि (→द्रोणि°). -d) ने2 प्रमुच्यते (→प्रसेच्यते) -c0 से2 प्रमुच्यते (→प्रसेच्यते) -c0 से3 प्रोडाख्याख्यो(→प्रौडाख्यो ने); ने1 °तटः, ने2 °सदः (→-c0 से-c1 से5 प्रीडाख्यं (→प्रौडाख्यं). -c2 से6 प्रतोत्तरः (→वरोत्तरान्). -c3 ने1 प्रोडाख्यं (→प्रौडाख्यं). -c3 ने1 ने1 तुष्टाः (→तुष्टः). -c3 ने1 वर्गेन (→वेगेन).

स दृष्ट्वा लोकनाथेशं हंसारूढं प्रजापतिम्। ननाम परया भक्त्या प्रत्युत्थाय कृताञ्जिलः॥१०॥ तस्मै संतूषितो ब्रह्मा वरं वरय स्वत । महाभागः सुपुण्येनान्तरात्मना ॥ ११ ॥ इत्युवाच ततोवाच विधातारं गर्गः सुप्रीतमानसः। वै जलं वब्रे तपोनिधिः॥ १२॥ પ્રીતારી (સ્વાર્થ तथेत्युक्ता महाभागा ब्रह्मा लोकपितामहः। मन्दाकिन्या जलैः पृण्यैः प्रौढाख्यं संप्रपूरवत्॥ १३॥ प्रौढाख्यं पूरियत्वा सा गङ्गा मन्दाकिनी द्विजाः। होषा गर्गाश्रमं प्राप्ता स्वर्गतीर्था सरिद्वरा॥ १४ । रेमे चाभीप्सितं कामं दत्त्वा लोकपितामहः। ब्रह्मभुवनं पुलस्त्याद्यैमंहर्षिभः॥ १०॥ जगाम गर्गोऽपि तं सरःप्रायं दृष्ट्रा वे मुनिसत्तमाः। संतोषं परमं लेभे निःस्वः प्राप्य यथा धनम्॥ १६॥ येन वे रचयामास हेत्रुना तन्मयोदितम्। मज्जनं तर्पणं श्राद्धं ये कुर्वन्ति तपोधनाः। यान्ति ब्रह्मभुवनं प्रौढास्ये च सरोवरे॥ १७॥ पुण्ये प्रौढाख्यमध्ये वै ब्रह्मतीर्थेति विश्वतम्। तत्र पिण्डप्रदानेन कुलाना तारयेच्छतम्॥१८० गर्गतीर्थेति विश्रुतं मुनिसत्तमाः। दक्षिणे तत्र स्नात्वा च मनुजो विष्णुलोके महीयते॥ १९॥ ह्रदमध्ये वे देवं केदारमंज्ञकम्। तत्रैव संपूज्य मुनिशाद् लाः शोभनास्यगणान्वितम् कुलत्रयसमन्वितः ॥ २० ॥ शिवलोकमवाप्नोति

१०. -d) ने2 वृतांजने (\rightarrow कृताङ्गलिः). १२. -b) ने1 गव्यां. (\rightarrow गर्गः), -c) ने2 ११. -d) ने2 सुवर्णा (\rightarrow सुपुण्ये°). १२. -b) ने1 गव्यां. (\rightarrow गर्गः) ने2 प्रोडाक्य (\rightarrow प्रीडाक्यं). १४. -a) ने2 प्रोडाक्य (\rightarrow प्रीडाक्यं). -c) ने3 पुण्या(\rightarrow प्राप्ता). -d) ने1 मर्गे(\rightarrow प्रवा). -c) ने3 पुण्या(\rightarrow प्राप्ता). -d) ने1 वर्ग (\rightarrow प्रवा). १५. -a) ने2 वृष्टा (\rightarrow वृष्टा). -d) ने1 वर्ग (\rightarrow प्रवा). १५. -c) ने1 प्राप्ता (\rightarrow प्रवानं). १८. -c) ने1 प्राप्ता (\rightarrow प्रवानं). १८. -d) ने2 °गदा (\rightarrow प्रवाकं). १८. -d) ने1 प्रीडाक्याक्ये (\rightarrow प्रीडाक्ये व). २०.-d) ने2 °गदा (\rightarrow प्रवाकं).

इत्येतत् कथितं वित्रा यथा सृष्टो महासरः । ब्रह्मणा लोकनाथेन गर्गास्य द्वितकारिणा ।। २१ ॥ प्रौढाख्यस्य च माहात्म्यं यः श्रृणोति समाहितः । स याति ब्रह्मभूवनमप्सरोभिश्च सेवितः ।। २२ ॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे प्रीढाख्यसरमाहात्म्यं नाम द्वात्रिकोऽध्यायः ॥ ३२ ॥

२२. -a) ने1 प्रौढास्यस्य (\rightarrow प्रौढास्यस्य न). -c) ने3 $^{\circ}$ भवनम्(\rightarrow $^{\circ}$ भृवनम्). पुष्पिका—ने1-3 द्वात्रिशत्तमोऽस्यायः (\rightarrow द्वात्रिशोऽस्यायः).

ऋषय ऊन्: ।

श्रुतं प्रौढाख्यमाहात्म्यं त्वत्तो हि मुनिसत्तम। याः पुण्याः सरितः सन्ति सुपुण्ये ब्रह्मपर्वते । ये देवा ये च वै तीर्थास्तान् व्याख्यापय सुन्नत ॥ १॥

व्यास उवाच ।

गर्गाश्रममम्द्भवा । पर्वतोहेशे तत्रैव गार्गी नामा सरिच्छेष्ठा सङ्गता रथवाहिनीम्॥२॥ मूले तस्या ऋषिश्रेष्ठं गर्गं सम्भाव्य वै द्विजाः। प्राप्नोति मानवः सम्यक् मनोऽभिलिषतं फलम् ॥ ३॥ दक्षिणे वेणुभद्रायाः सङ्गमे मुनिसत्तमाः। निमज्य मानवः सम्यक् पातकाद् विप्रमुच्यते। भद्रेशं तत्र सम्पूज्य शिवलोने महीयते॥४॥ ततः शुकवती नामा सुपुष्ये गर्गिसङ्गमे। ययौ सा मुनिशार्द्गलाः पुण्यतीयवहा नदी॥५॥ तयोर्मध्ये महादेवं शुकेशं पूज्य वै द्विजाः। प्राप्नोति मानवः सम्यक् शिवलोकं सुदुर्ल्भम् ॥ ६॥ यमाराध्य शुकाः सर्वे यमेन परिबोधिताः। प्रापुः शिवपुरं पुण्यं सिद्धगन्धवंसेवितम् ॥ ७ ॥

प्राप्नोति मानवः सम्यक् शिवलोकं सुदुलंभम्। (= ६cd) वाभे गार्गी (ने2 °र्गी) महादेवीं (ने2 °वी) संपूज्य मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ 8. -b) ने2.3 सङ्गमं (→सङ्गमे); ने1 °सत्तमा (→°सत्तमाः). -c) ने1 सम्य* (
ightarrow सम्बक्). ५. -c) ने $_3$ °शाद्रं छ: (
ightarrowशाद्रं छाः). ६. -b) ने $_2$ हिजः (
ightarrowदिजाः). $-\mathrm{d})$ ने $_1$ °लोक (
ightarrow°लोक). $oldsymbol{9}$. $-\mathrm{b})$ ने $_2$ °बोधितां (
ightarrow°बोधिताः).

³³

⁽⁻a) ने $_2$ प्रोडास्य $^\circ$ (\rightarrow प्रोडास्य $^\circ$). -b) ने $_2$ $^\circ$ सत्तमः (\rightarrow $^\circ$ सत्तम). -c) ने $_2$ (→ऋषि°).

^{3.} इलोकस्य B, C मध्ये ने2.3 अधिकम्—

ऋषय ऊचुः।

कथं ते पक्षिणो विप्र यमेन परिबोधिताः। कथमाराध्य तं देवं गताः शिवपूरं प्रति॥८॥

व्यास उवाच ।

अत्रैवोदाहरन्तीमिनिहासं पुरातनम्।
शुकानां चैव संवादं यमस्य च महात्मनः ॥ ९ ॥
पुरा कृतयुगे विप्राः पुण्ये गोमन्तपर्वते ।
बभूव चन्द्रको नाम शुकः परमधार्मिकः ॥ १० ॥
बभूवुस्तस्य वै विप्रास्त्रयः परमधार्मिकाः ॥
सुता देवसुतप्रायाः शालीनामन्तकारकाः ॥ ११ ॥
कदाचिद् विपिने गत्वा पितरं वनवासिनम् ।

शुका ऊचुः।

भूत्वा भूत्वा महाभाग घोरे संसारसागरे। प्राणिनो देवकल्पं वै देहं सन्त्यज्य कां गतिम् ॥ १३ ॥ यान्ति सम्यक् बूहि तात केनायान्ति तथैव हि ।

श्क उवाच।

कर्मणः परिपाकेन प्राणिनो योनिसङ्कटे। निमज्य भूतले पुत्राः सम्भवन्ति प्रयान्ति व ॥ १४ ॥ पुनः कर्मविपाकेन मृता यमपुरं प्रति । यान्ति वै नात्र संदेहो नारकैः परिसेवितम् ॥ १५ ॥ सैवाधिष्ठापितः पुत्रा ब्रह्मणा पद्मयोनिना। सैव धर्मविचारान् वे कुरुते पातकस्य व ॥ १६ ॥

व्यास उवाच ।

शुकास्ते मुनिशाद्ग्र्लाः शुकेन परिबोधिता । स्वर्गापवर्गदातारं यमं वै परिमेनिरे ॥ १७ ॥

९. -d) ने1.2 महात्मना (ने2 °नाः) (\rightarrow महात्मनः). ११. -a) ने2 बभूव (\rightarrow बभूवस्). १२. -c) ने2 प्रच्छन्ते (\rightarrow पप्रच्छन्ते); ने3 °संदेहः (\rightarrow °सन्देहं). १४. -d) ने1 प्रयाति (\rightarrow प्रयान्ति). १६. -b) ने1.2 ब्रह्मण्या (\rightarrow ब्रह्मणा); ने1 °यो \ast ना (\rightarrow °योनिना). -d) ने1 स (\rightarrow च). १७. -b) ने1 °योचिताः (\rightarrow °बोचिताः). -d) ने1 यमे (\rightarrow यमे).

ततो वैवस्वतं देवं पित्रा तेन निबोधिता। स्वर्गापवर्गदातारं यमं ते समपूजयन् ॥ १८॥ ततः कालेन महता तृष्टो वैवस्वतो यमः। तेषां संदर्शनार्थाय ययौ दण्डधरः स्वयम् ॥ १९ ॥ तत्र तान द्विजरूपेण चोपविश्य यमः स्वयम्। उवाच वचनं विप्रास्तेषां समनुकम्पया ॥ २०॥

यम उवाच ।

कोऽयमाराध्यते देवो भवद्भिरिचत्रनन्दनाः। कायक्लेशकरं पुण्यं तप्यते केन हेतुना॥२१॥ ऊचर्वैवस्वतोऽस्माभिः पूज्यते द्विजसत्तम। स्वर्गापवर्गयोदीता सैव प्रोक्तो मनीषिभिः। स्वर्गीय यमराजानं प्रार्थयाम न संशयः॥ २२॥

व्यास उवाच ।

श्कानां वचनं श्रुत्वा स्मयं कृत्वा महायमः। महातेजाः स्फूरदृशनमण्डलः ॥ २३ ॥ प्रत्युवाच

यम उवाच।

वथाऽयं तप्यते मुढा कायक्लेशकरं तपः। स्वर्गप्रदाता न यमो विद्यते नात्र संशयः॥२४॥ धर्माधर्मविनिर्णेतुं विधात्रा प्रेषितः किल । न तमाराष्य वै मूद्यः प्राप्यते देवमण्डलम् ॥ २५ ॥

व्यास उवाच ।

तस्य तद्वचनं श्रुत्वा शुकाः संकुपिताभवन्। विमृत्य सुचिरं कालं तमेव परिपृच्छयन् ॥ २६॥

शुका ऊचुः ।%

यदि नास्ति यमो राजा स्वर्गमार्गप्रदर्शकः। र्ताह कोऽन्यतमो भूमौ विद्यते द्विजसत्तम ॥ २७ ॥

 $m{ {\it C.} -b)}$ ने $_1$ तेनाव $^{\circ}$, ने $_2$ तेन वि $^{\circ}$ (ightarrowतेन नि $^{\circ}$). -d) ने $_1$ सत्वान् मंप्रपूजयन्. **१**९. -b) ने $_2$ तुष्टो वैवस्वतोपमः. २१. -b) ने $_2$ $^{\circ}$ नंदन (\rightarrow नन्दनाः). २३. -b) ने $_1$ महान्यम (ightarrowमहायमः). २४. -d) ने $_1$ विवते (ightarrowविदाने). २५. -d) ने2 °मण्डले (→°मण्डलं).

a% ने2 शक उवाच∙

२७. $-\mathrm{d}$) ने1 विषते (ightarrowविद्यते); ने2 $^{\circ}$ सत्तमः ($ightarrow^{\circ}$ सत्तम).

व्यास उवाच ।

ततस्तान् स यमो विप्रा निजभिक्तपरायणान् । उवाच वचनं पुण्यं बृहस्पतिरिवामरान् ॥ २८॥

यम उवाच ।

यं यमेति महाभागाः पूज्य संप्रार्थयन्ति हि । सोऽहमस्मिन्नहायातो नास्मि मुक्तिप्रदो ह्यहम् ॥ २९ ॥ धर्माधर्मविनिर्णेतुं कृतोऽस्मि विधिना खगाः । ममोपदेशं संप्राप्य क्रियन्तां मे उदाहृतम् ॥ ३० ॥ दिव्यं हिमालयं प्राप्य कुर्वन्तु शिवपूजनम् । येनोपायेन मे मार्गं हित्वा स्वर्गं ब्रजिष्यय ॥ ३१ ॥

व्यास उवाच।

यमोदाहृतमाकर्ण्यं जातहर्षाः खगोत्तमाः। प्रणिपत्य महाभागं यमं पप्रच्छुर्वैद्विजाः।। ३२॥

शुका ऊचुः।

कुत्र संपूजियष्यामः शिवलोकप्रदं शिवम् । कुत्र जार्गात देवेशः स्थले भूतगणिधिपः ॥ ३३ ॥

यम उवाच ।

हिमालयतटे रम्ये संभूता रथवाहिनी । जार्गात यत्र सा पुण्या वामे तस्या महागिरिः ॥ ३४ ॥ गार्गीशुकवतीमध्ये ब्रह्मणा सुविनिर्मितः । पर्वतो ब्रह्म नामा वे सिद्धगन्धवंसेवितः ॥ ३५ ॥ तस्मिन् प्रौढाख्यनामा वे विद्यते सरनायकः । निमज्य तत्र देवेशं पूजयन्तु खगोत्तमाः ॥ ३६ ॥ तत्र गार्गि सरित् मध्ये निमज्य शुक्रसत्तमाः । स्पूज्य देवदेवेशं कालेनात्मेन वे खगाः । प्रसादाद् देवदेवस्य स्वगं प्राप्ट्यथ माचिरम् ॥ ३६ ॥ प्रसादाद् देवदेवस्य स्वगं प्राप्ट्यथ माचिरम् ॥ ३६ ॥

२८. -b) ने1.3 °परायणाम् (ने3 °णा) (\rightarrow °परायणान्). २९. -d) नास्ति (\rightarrow नास्मि). ३०. -a) ने1 °िनर्णेता (\rightarrow °िनर्णेतुं). ३१. -d) ने1 प्रजिष्यय (\rightarrow प्रजिष्यय). ३३. -b) ने2.3 शिवलोकशिवप्रदम्. ३६. -a) ने1 प्रोढाख्य° (\rightarrow प्रौढाख्य°). ३७. रलोकस्य ८ चरणात् परं ने1 अधिकम्— 'पूजर्वतु खगोत्तमा । तत्र गगिसरिन्मध्यो' (= ३६d-3 \circ a).

व्यास उवाच ।

यमस्य वचनं श्रुत्वा पक्षिणस्ते द्विजोत्तमाः ।
यमं संपूज्य सुप्रीताः परिक्रम्य प्रणम्य च ॥ ३८ ॥
जग्मुख्तरमार्गेण पुष्यं प्रौढाख्यशङ्करम् ।
निमज्याधित्यकाभूमि ययुस्ते मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ ३९ ॥
तत्र वे शतधा चैव जले संस्नाप्य वै खगाः ।
निमज्य शङ्करं देवं तोषयामासुः सुवताः ॥ ४० ॥
स्वनाम्ना चाङ्कितं लिङ्गं स्थापयित्वा खगोत्तमाः ।
शीर्णपर्णानिलाहारा दशवर्षाणि पञ्च च ॥ ४१ ॥
ततो देवगणैः सार्द्वं शङ्करो मुनिसत्तमाः ।
ययौ देविषगन्धर्वेः यत्र ते पक्षिणः स्थिताः ॥ ४२ ॥
मत्वा तं वृषभारूढं त्रिशूलवरधारिणम् ।
शिवं ते तुष्टुवृतित्रा वाष्पगद्गवया गिरा ॥ ४३ ॥

श्का ऊचुः।

नमो भस्माञ्जरागाय त्रिश्र्लवरधारिणे। महेरवराय देवाय वृषवाहाय ते नमः॥४४॥ नमस्ते शितिकण्ठाय जटामण्डलधारिणे। विरूपक्षाय भर्गाय भवाय च नमो नमः॥४५॥

व्यास उवाच ।

इति शुकै: सुसंतुष्टो महादेवस्तपोधनाः। उवाच करुणाद्रेण वचसा वदतां वरः॥ ४६॥

शिव उवाच ।

दुःप्राप्यं देवगन्धर्वैः प्रयन्छामि वरं खगाः। वृण्वन्त्वभीष्सितं मत्तः सिद्धि येन प्रयाप्त्यथ॥ ४७॥

³९. -a) ने1 जजगमूत्तर $^{\circ}$ (\rightarrow जगमुत्तर $^{\circ}$). -b) ने1 प्रोढाष्य $^{\circ}$ (\rightarrow प्रोढाष्य $^{\circ}$). -c) ने1 $^{\circ}$ भूमी ($^{\circ}$ भूमि). -d) ने1 $^{\circ}$ सत्तमा ($^{\circ}$ सत्तमा:). ४०. -a) ने1 खरापाराया (\rightarrow घतवा चेव). -b) ने1.2 खगा (\rightarrow खगाः). ४२. -b) ने1 $^{\circ}$ सत्तमा (\rightarrow $^{\circ}$ सत्तमा:). ४५. -c) ने1 गर्भाय (\rightarrow भगीय).

शुका ऊचुः।

नान्यमिच्छाम वै शम्भो त्वत्पादयुगलं विना। अपि त्रैलोक्यराज्यं वा महेन्द्रपदवीं तथा॥ ४८॥

व्यास उवाच ।

इति तैः प्राधितः शम्भुस्तथेत्युक्त्वा च तान् खगान्।
अधिरोप्य विमानाग्रे ययौ नीत्वा स्वमन्दिरम् ॥ ४९ ॥
इत्येतत् कथितं विप्राः शुकाख्यानं सुविस्तरम् ।
यः श्रृणोति हरस्याग्रे यमलोकं न पश्यति ॥ ५० ॥
इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे शुकेशमाहात्म्यं नाम
अयस्त्रिताऽध्यायः ॥ ३३ ॥

४८. क्लोकात्परं ने । अधिकम्—

^{&#}x27;ते पादयुगर्ल शंभो त्यक्तुं कालत्रवैरपि । न शक्यामो वयं मुढा वत्सं गौ कातरा यथा ॥' ५०. −a) ने₁ विद्रा (→विद्राः).

पुष्पिका—ने। मा॰ (→मानसखण्डे); ने३ त्रयस्त्रिशतितमोध्यायः (→त्रयस्त्रिशोऽध्ययः).

ऋषय ऊच् ।

शुकेश्वरस्य माहात्म्यं त्वयैतत् समुदाहृतम्। तीर्थानां तत्र माहात्म्यं श्रोतुमिच्छामि वै द्विज ॥ १ ॥

व्यास उवाच ।

तस्य पादतले पुष्या शतधारा सरिद्वरा । शुकै: संप्राधिता शुद्धा विद्यते मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ २ ॥ तस्यां तीर्थान्यनेकानि सन्ति वै मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ २ ॥ ब्राह्मचं सौरं तथा चान्द्रं शुकं सारणकं तथा । निमज्य तेषु तीर्थेषु नरो ब्रह्मपुरं व्रजेत् ॥ ३ ॥ सङ्गमे शतधारायाः पुष्या गुप्तसरस्वती । तत्र स्नास्वा च मनुजः शुकेशं यः प्रपूजयेत् । शिवलोकमवाप्नोति श्वकन्यानिषेवितः ॥ ४ ॥ शतधारा शुकवतीं ययौ वे मुनिसत्तमाः । सङ्गमे शतधारायाः शुकवत्यास्तथैव च । यः स्नाति मानवः सम्यक् स याति शिवमन्दिरम् ॥ ५ ॥ तत्र दुःशासनो विप्रा जित्वा पवंतभूमिपात् । चकार मज्जनं पुष्यं बली कौरवनन्दनः॥ ६ ॥

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 $m{Q}$. $-{
m d}$) ने1 द्विजः, ने3 द्विजाः (→िद्वज). \m{Q} . $-{
m b}$) ने1 शतवारा (→शतघारा). $-{
m d}$) ने1 विषते (→िवदाते). \m{Q} . $-{
m d}$) ने1 $^{\circ}$ सत्तमा (→ $^{\circ}$ सत्तमाः). \m{Q} . $-{
m d}$) ने8 सुकेशं (→शुकेशं).

५. इलोकात्परं ने । अधिकम् (द्विरावृत्तम्)—

^{&#}x27;'तत्र दुःशासनो विप्रा जित्वा पर्वतभूमिपान् । चकार मज्जनं पुण्यं बली कौरवनंदनः ॥ स याति शिवमंदिरं.....॥"

 $[\]xi$. -c) में $_2$ चकारेणज्जलं पुण्यं. -d) मे $_{2.3}$ $^{\circ}$ मर्दमं (ightarrow $^{\circ}$ मन्दमः).

तत्र स्मशानितलयं देवं दुःशासनेश्वरम् ।
संपूज्य मानवः सम्यक् शिवलोके महीयते ॥ ७ ॥
द्रोणाद्विपादसंभूतां पुण्यां शुकवतीं हि ये ।
निमज्जन्ति महाभागास्ते न यान्ति यमालयम् ॥ ८ ॥
द्रोणाद्विपादसम्भूतां सुतो मे प्रार्थयद्धि याम् ।
तस्यां निमज्य मनुजाः पूज्यत्ते शिववद् भृवि ॥ ९ ॥
सन्ति तीर्थान्यनेकानि शुकवत्याः पदे पदे ।
या गार्गी समनुप्राप्य पूज्यते सिद्धनायकैः ॥ १० ॥
गार्गीशुकवतीसङ्गे वटेशं नाम शङ्करम् ।
संपूज्य मानवः सम्यक् शिवलोके महीयते ॥ ११ ॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे शुकेश्वरमाहात्म्यं नाम चतुर्त्तित्रकोऽध्यायः॥ ३४ ॥

 ⁻d) ने₁ पूज्यते (→पूज्यन्ते).
 ११. -a) ने₁ °सङ्गं (→°सङ्गे).

पुष्पिका—अध्यायनाम—ने1.3 चतुस्त्रिशतितमोऽध्यायः (→चतुस्त्रिशोऽध्यायः.)

ऋषय ऊच्: ।

गार्गीमध्यगतानां तु माहात्म्यं मुनिसत्तम। कथयस्व प्रसादेन सर्वं ते विदितं हि यत्॥१॥

व्यास उवाच ।

द्रोणाद्रिपादौ द्रौ विप्रा वदन्ति हि मनीषिणः। लब्धब्रह्मोति विख्याती पवंतौ सिद्धसेवितौ॥२॥ त्तयोर्मंध्ये महाभागाः पुण्यो गर्गाश्रमः स्मृतः। तस्याश्रमसमुद्भृता गांगी नाम सरिद्धरा॥३॥ गङ्कासारजलैः पूर्णा मकरैश्च विराजिता। मुले गङ्गेश्वरं नाम देव(वं ?) संपूज्य वै दिजाः॥ पूजया मानवः सम्यक् शिवलोके महीयते॥४॥ ततो गार्गीसरिन्मध्ये पूण्यं गार्गीहृदं स्मृतम्। तत्र स्नात्वा च मनुजो ब्रह्मलोके महीयते॥५॥ ततो बिल्ववती नामा गार्गीसङ्गमसङ्गता। तत्र स्नात्वा च विधिवत् तयोर्मध्ये महेश्वरम्। सोमेशं तत्र संपूज्य सोमलोके महीयते॥६॥ तस्य वामे महादेवी भद्रा संपूज्यते द्विजाः। तां संपूज्य नरः सम्यक् ऐहिकं फलमञ्तुते॥७॥ ततो भद्रवती नामा गार्गीसङ्गमसङ्गता। यः स्नाति मानवः सम्यक् स पापैर्मुच्यते द्विजाः॥ ८॥ तयोर्मध्ये महादेवं भद्रांशं नाम नामतः। संपूज्य मानवो विप्राः शिवेन सह मोदते॥९॥ दक्षिणे कमलाकान्तं गुहायां परमेश्वरम्। संपूज्य मानवः सम्यक् विष्णुलोके महीयते ॥ १० ॥ ततः शुकवतीसङ्गं पुष्यमस्ति तपोधनाः। निमज्य मानवस्तत्रं पितन् संतारयेत् स्वकान्॥११॥

³⁴

 $^{\{. -}b\}$ ने2 °सत्तमः $(\rightarrow$ °सत्तम). ५. -b) ने1 गर्म°, ने3 वानाँ $(\rightarrow$ गार्वी°). -a) ने1 ततो (→तस्य); ने3 °हेवीं (→°हेवी). -b) ने3 महां (→महा). -c) ने। सुपुज्य (→संपूज्य). ९. -b) ने। महीकं (→महांकं). १०. -d) ने। शिव^o (→विष्णु^o).

वामे शैलवतीं देवीं संपूज्य मुनिसत्तमाः। फलमाप्नोति महामायाप्रसादतः ॥ १२ ॥ सङ्गमं पुण्यं वर्ण्यते मुनिसत्तमाः। ततस्तू शैलवत्याः सुप्ण्याया गार्गीमध्ये सुप्जितम् ॥ १३ ॥ चिताभस्मविभूषणम् । महादेवं संपूज्य मानवः सम्यक् शिवसायुज्यमञ्नुते ॥ १४ ॥ वामे कर्णाटकीं देवीं दक्षिणे विजयां तथा। संपुज्य फलमाप्नोति वाञ्छितं मुनिसत्तमाः॥ १५॥ ततो गार्गी महाभागा सुपुण्ये देवसेविते। सङ्गमे रथवाहिन्या ययौ सा सरितां वरा।। १६।। सगार्गीरथवाहिन्योः सङ्गमे मुनिसत्तमाः। निमज्य पिण्डदानं वै प्रकूर्वन्ति समाहिताः। समुद्धरन्ति ते विप्राः कुलमेकोत्तरं शतम् ॥ १७॥ तत्र चक्रेश्वरं नाम देवं संपुज्य वै द्विजाः। शिवलोकमवाप्नोति शिवेन सह तत्र वामे महामायां चक्रवाकीं द्विजोत्तमाः। संपुज्य मानवो याति महेन्द्रभवनं प्रति॥१९॥ ततो(तः ?) पारावती नामा तथा चक्रवती सरित । संगमे रथवाहिन्या ययतुर्मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ २०॥ तत्र पारवतीं देवीं पूण्ये पाराहपर्वते । संपुज्य मानवो लोके पूज्यते देववद् द्विजाः ॥ २१॥ अनेकार्बुदसंख्यानि तीर्थानि मृनिसत्तमाः। सुपुण्ये रथवाहिन्या जले सन्ति न संशयः॥ तानि सर्वाणि व्याख्यातुं न शक्यन्ते द्विजोत्तमाः ॥ २२ ॥ माहात्म्यं रथवाहिन्यास्तथा गाग्यां द्विजोत्तमाः। संक्षेपेण मया प्रोक्तं किमन्यत् प्रष्टुमिच्छथ ॥ २३ ॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे रथवाहिनीमाहात्म्यं नाम पञ्चित्रिशोऽध्यायः ॥ ३५ ॥

१२. -2) ने1 देवी (→देवी). -b) ने2 °सत्तमः (→°सत्तमः). १३. -b) ने2 °सत्तमः (→°सत्तमः). १८. -d) ने1 °सायोज्य° (→°सायुज्य°). १५. -a) ने2 सा में (→वामे); ने1 कर्णाटकी (→कर्णाटकी). -b) ने1 विजयांस्तया, ने3 विजयंस्तया (→विजयां तथा). -d) ने2 °सत्तम (→°सत्तमाः). १८. -a) ने1 °वाहित्याः (→°वाहित्याः). -b) ने1 दैवं (→देवं). पुष्पिका—ने1 पंचित्रसत्तमां°, ने3 पंचित्रस्तितमो° (→पञ्चित्रस्तिको°).

ऋषय ऊचुः ।

द्रोणाद्रिरिति यः स्थातस्त्वया ब्रह्मार्षसत्तम। माहात्म्यं तस्य पूण्यस्य श्रोत्मिच्छाम साम्प्रतम् ॥ १ ॥

व्यास उवाच ।

कौशिकीरथवाहिन्योर्मध्ये द्रोणगिरिः स्मृतः। द्रोणाद्यैर्वसुभिः पुण्यैः सेवितः सुमनोहरः॥२॥ नानाविधैः पक्षिगणैः सेव्यमानो महागिरिः। रात्री मरकतोपमः ॥ ३ ॥ महोषधिमहादीपै इतस्ततः प्रधावद्भिः शाद् लैस्तु निषेवितः। गुहासु चातिकान्तासु सिद्धकन्याविराजितः ॥ ४॥ परिवार्य्य निषेवितः। महेन्द्रप्रमुखैर्देवैः देवतटादिभिः॥ ५॥ प्रौढाख्यादिसरैयुक्तस्तथा पर्वतस्य च कन्याभिः क्रीडतो मुनिसत्तमाः। स गिरिप्रवरो भूत्वा राजते मेरुवत् स्वयस्॥६॥ यत्र पुण्या महौषध्यो रात्रौ संप्रवदन्ति हि। कथं ते मानवा लोके सिद्धि यान्ति निरर्थकाः॥७॥ रात्रौ रात्रौ हि संवादं प्रक्वंन्ति तपोधनाः। ये निमज्य महाभागाः प्रौढास्ये सरनायके॥८॥ समारुह्यन्ति द्रोणाद्वि दुर्दर्श पापकारिभिः। ते सिद्धि यान्ति वै विप्राः प्रार्थिता सिद्धनायकैः॥९॥ वामे देवतटो नाम सिद्धगन्धर्वसेवितः। विद्यते मुनिशादू लाः पुष्ये मानसरोपमः॥ १०॥ दिवेश्वरः । सिद्धगन्धर्वनारीणां क्रीडनार्थं यं वै व (वि ?) रचयामास पुण्यतोयैर्द्धिजोत्तमाः॥ ११॥ तस्मिन् वे सिद्धगन्धर्वास् तथा सिद्धाङ्गनाः शुभाः। निमज्जन्ति महाभागाः संस्थिता द्रोणसानुषु ॥ १२॥

³⁶

१. –a) ने। द्रौणाद्रि $^{\circ}$ (→द्रोणाद्रि $^{\circ}$); ने $_{2}$ द्रोणाद्रिगिरिमुख्यातस्. –c) ने। नस्य $(\rightarrow \pi \epsilon d)$. २. -c) ने 1 पुष्ये: $(\rightarrow q v \bar{d})$. ३. -c) ने 1 महोविधि $(\rightarrow \pi \epsilon) q \bar{q}$. प्र. -c) ने2 युक्तम् (→युक्तस्). ६. -b) ने1 सेचिता, ने2 क्रीडितो (→क्रीबदो).

सरे तस्मिन् महाभागा निमज्य त्रिद्शेश्वरम्। संपूज्य तटमध्यस्थां महादेवीं तथैव च ॥ १३ ॥ यो याति देवशिखरं स देवै: सह मोदते । द्रोणं वसूनां प्रवरं स्नात्वा देवजल्डे शुभे ॥ १४ ॥ तथा द्रोणेश्वरं देवं गिरिमध्ये द्विजोत्तमाः। संपूज्य मानवः सम्यग्वसुभिः स प्रपूज्यते ॥ १५ ॥ द्रोणाद्रिनागयोर्मंध्ये विल्वेशं नाम शङ्करम्। मुनिशादू ला वाजपेयफलं संपज्य लभेत् ॥ १६ ॥ पण्ये द्रोणादिकक्षे वै महामायां हरप्रियाम्। वरदां शूलहस्तां तां महिषासुरघातिनीम् ॥ १७॥ द्रोणाद्यैर्वसुभिः पुण्यैः पूजितां मृगवाहिनीम्। देवीं वह्निमतीं पूज्य सिद्धि यान्तीह मानवाः॥ १८॥ तथैव कालिकां देवीं द्रोणाद्रिकृक्षिसंस्थिताम्। संपुज्य प्राप्यते विप्रा मनोभिलिषतं फलम् ॥ १९॥ मासमात्रेण संपूज्य देवीं वह्निमतीं तथा। ये वसन्ति महाभागा द्रोणाद्रिशिखरे शुभे। ते सिद्धि समनुप्राप्य पूज्यन्ते दैवतैरपि ॥ २०॥ मयैतत् कथितं विप्रा माहात्म्यं नातिविस्तरम्। यः श्रुणोति महाभागा विष्णुलोके प्रपूज्यते ॥ २१ ॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे द्वोणाद्धिमाहात्म्यं नाम षद्भिकोऽध्यायः ॥ ३६ ॥

 $^{{\}bf \xi}$. $-{\bf C}$) ने2 °मध्यस्था (→ मध्यस्थां). ${\bf \xi}$ 8. $-{\bf a}$) ने3 °शिषरं (°शिखरं). ${\bf \xi}$ 4. $-{\bf b}$) ने2 °मध्य (→ भध्ये). $-{\bf d}$) ने1.2 सु प्रगुज्यते (→स प्रगुज्यते). ${\bf \xi}$ 9. $-{\bf a}$) ने1 नरदा शूलहस्ता तां. ${\bf \xi}$ 6. $-{\bf a}$ 0 ने2.3 बहुभिः (→बसुभिः); ने1 पुण्ये (→गुण्यैः). $-{\bf d}$ 0 ने1 मानवः (→मानवाः). ${\bf \xi}$ 0. $-{\bf f}$ 0 ने2 देव° (→दैव°). ${\bf \xi}$ 8. $-{\bf d}$ 0 ने1 विष्णुभिस्ते (→विष्णुलोके). पुष्पिका—ने1.3 षहिंशांतितमो° (→षटिंशशो°).

सूत उवाच।

पिनाकीशस्य माहात्म्यं श्रुत्वा ते मुनिसत्तमाः। कृष्णद्वैपायनं व्यासं पप्रच्छुन् पसत्तम॥१॥

ऋषय ऊचुः।

पिनाकीशस्य माहात्म्यं कथितं मुनिसत्तमः । यावद् ब्रह्मसरं पुण्यं तावत् क्षेत्रं त्वयोदितम् ॥२॥ ततः कौशिकिमाहात्म्यं श्रोतुमिच्छामि(?)वै द्विज । वामदक्षिणगानां च तीर्थानां वद विस्तरात्॥३॥

व्यास उवाच ।

कौशिकीतीर्थमाहात्म्यं श्रुण्वन्तु मुनिसत्तमाः। ब्रह्मसरः पुण्यो विद्यते मुनिसेवितः॥३॥ यस्यां निमज्य विधिवत् तत्र संपूज्य च प्रजापतिम्। पिण्डं दत्त्वा च मितमान् पितृणां तारयेच्छतम् ॥ ४॥ त्ततस्तु कवर्कंटी नामा(?) कौशिकी सङ्गमे द्विजाः। तीर्थंबहुला पुण्यतोयवहा सरित्। निमज्य विधिवत् तत्र मानवो याति शाक्वतम् ॥ ५॥ सरिद्वरा । शैवी नामा स्वयंभूगिरिसंभूता गता ॥ ६॥ कौशिकीसङ्गमे पुण्येनोत्तरमार्गेण त्तयोर्मध्ये महादेवं स्वयंभु नाम वे द्विजा। संपूज्य मानवो याति शिवलोकं सुदुर्लंभम्॥७॥ ततः पुण्या सरिच्छेष्ठा दक्षिणाभिमुखी शुमा। सत्या नामा महाभागा कौशिकी सङ्गमे ययौ। तत्र स्नात्वा च मनुजः सत्यलोकमवाप्नुयात्॥८॥ ततस्तु बहवः पुण्याः सरितो मुनिसत्तमाः। कौशिकीसङ्गमे पुण्याः सङ्गता नात्र संशयः॥९॥

[₹]७

१. ने1.2 ⊙. ★. ने1.2 ⊙.
 ३. -b) ने1 द्विज:, ने2 द्विजा (→द्विज).
 २६

वामे काखा(वा(?))यसंज्ञो वै पर्वतः समुदाहृतः । तस्य पादसमुद्दभूता काशी नामा सरिद्वरा ।। १०॥ कौशिकी सङ्मे पुण्ये संगता मृनिसत्तमाः । तयोमंध्ये निमज्याशु पातकात् तरते जनः ।। ११॥ तत्तस्तु दक्षिणे पार्श्वे वटी नामा सरिद्वरा । कौशिकीसङ्गमे पुण्ये सङ्गता मृनिसत्तमाः ॥ १२॥ तयोमंध्ये निमज्याशु दक्षिणे परमेश्वरीम् । भवानीं पुजयित्वा तु वडादित्यं प्रपूजयेत् ॥ १३॥ भवानीं पुजयित्वा तु वडादित्यं प्रपूजयेत् ॥ १३॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे कौशिकोतीर्थमाहारम्यं नाम सप्तात्रिशोऽध्यायः ॥ ३७ ॥

 $^{\{\}xi, -a\}$ ने2 कौशिकः $(\rightarrow \pi$ ौशिको). $\{\xi, -c\}$ ने1 पुष्या, ने2 पुष्यो $(\rightarrow \eta \psi \bar{\psi})$. पुष्पिका—अध्यायसंख्या—ने1.3 सप्तत्रिंशतितसो $^{\circ}$ $(\rightarrow \pi \pi \pi)$ श्चायसंख्याः).

ऋषय ऊचुः।

सर्वपापप्रशमनं सर्वोपद्रवनाशनम् । जन्ममृत्युजराव्याधिभयं येन न जायते । तदस्मान् ब्रूहि विप्रर्षे यथावत्सुसमाहितः ॥ १ ॥

व्यास उवाच ।

कौशिकीगर्गंसरितोमंध्येकं जारपर्वतः। देविषिसिद्धकन्यानां समूहैः सुनिषेवितः॥२॥ यत्र द्रोणाद्रिपादान्तं विद्यते सुनिसत्तमाः। तस्य दक्षिणपार्थे वै वडादित्येतिविश्रुतः॥३॥ गन्धवंविद्याधरसिद्धसङ्कैः

> संसेवितो क्रिक्सिः स्थापिकः । त्रैलोक्यदीपस्त्रिगुणात्मधारी

वर्वीत्तं देवो रिवसंज्ञको वै॥ ४॥ जन्ममृत्युजराव्याधिर्लोकानां मुनिसत्तमाः। यं सुपूज्य प्रणश्यन्ति घोरे संसारसागरे॥ ५॥ संसाराणंविविध्वाक्षतमोनाहाकरं प्रभुम्। पूजन्ति ये वडादित्यं तेषामात्तिः प्रणश्यति॥ ६॥ दुवृंत्तहामनोपायं सुवृत्तस्य प्रदर्शकम्। वडादित्यस्य देवस्य पूजनं कथितं द्विजाः॥ ७॥ यो देवो दी। प्यते विप्रा रिवः संसारसागरे। तमाराध्य मनुष्याणां कृतो मीतिः प्रवर्तते॥ ८॥ आदित्येति च यो देवैः स्तूयते कश्यपात्मजः। तमाराध्य वड़ादित्यं न भयं प्राप्नुयाज्ञनः॥ ९॥

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कौशिकीपुण्यतोये वे निमज्य सविधानकम्। प्रपुजयन्ति ये धन्यास्ते दिवं प्राप्नुवन्ति हि॥१०॥

ऋषय ऊचुः । 🕸

केन मर्त्ये वडादित्यः पूजितो मुनिसत्तम। केन स्वमण्डलं हित्वा भूमौ संस्थितवान् रविः॥ ११॥

व्यास उवाच ।

पुरा कृतयुगे विद्रा कालनेमिमंहासुरः। वभूवातिबलः पापो देविबद्वेषणे रतः॥ १२॥ ऋषीणामाश्रमं विद्रा नाश्यामास दुर्मेतिः। प्रहृत्याध्वरसामग्री वृभुने देववत् स्वयम्॥ १३॥ महर्षयो महाभागास्ततस्तेन निराकृताः। द्रोणकासारकङ्कारवासिनः संयतन्नताः। उपतस्थुदिनकरं कलेशिताः कालनेमिना॥ १४॥

ऋषय अवृः।

नमः सवित्रे जगदेकचक्षुषे

त्रयीमयायाखिलदेवपूजिते ।

दिव्यप्रकाशाय सुवर्णधारिणे सुघोरसंसारभयप्रणाशिने ॥ १५ ॥

सुघोरसंसारनिमग्नभूतान्

जनान् समुद्धृत्य विवेकदायिने । कालोपमाच्छत्रुभयाद्विभोत्वं

संत्राहि तुभ्यं प्रणताः स्म देव ॥ १६॥

व्यास उवाच ।

इति संस्तूयमानानामाविभूत्वा दिनेश्वरः। स्वेनैव वपुषा कान्तो वचनं समुवाच ह॥१७॥

 $^{\{\}xi, -b\}$ ने2 °सत्तमा (\rightarrow ° सत्तंम). -d) ने1 रिव (\rightarrow रिवः). $\{\xi, -c\}$ ने2 बभूवाविनलः पापो. $\{\xi, -c\}$ ने1 °सामग्री (\rightarrow °सामग्री). $\{\xi, -a\}$ ने1 हमज्यो (\rightarrow महर्षयो). $\{\xi, -a\}$ ने1 °भूता (\rightarrow °भूतान्). -b) ने1 जनात्ममुद्धत्य (\rightarrow जनान्समुद्धृत्य).

सूर्य उवाच।

प्रार्थितोऽस्मि महाभागा भवद्भिः केन हेतुना। प्रबूत तत्करिष्यामि दुष्करं दैवतैरपि॥१८॥

व्यास उवाच ।

दिननाथस्य वचनं सम्दाहृतम्। श्रुत्वाऽरमान् रक्ष वै नाथ कालनेमेर्भयाद् द्रुतम् ॥ १९ ॥ संरक्षमाणा वै करिष्यामस्तपोध्वरान। त्वया तथैवार्गिन प्रह्नयामः समिद्भिः परमेश्वरः ?॥ २०॥ स्वर्गमनुप्राप्ते स पापो दानवाधमः। पुत्रदारान्वितान् देव स चास्मान् नाशियव्यति ॥ २१॥ इत्थं विज्ञापितो विप्रै: सविता दिजसत्तमाः। तथेत्युक्ता (क्ता?) प्रभां दिव्यां पुण्ये वटशिलातले। चिक्षेप मुनिशाद्वीला ज्योतिर्मध्यगतां शुभाम् ॥ २२ ॥ ज्योतिस्तत्र स संस्थाप्य दिननाथो दिजोत्तमाः। तेषामाति प्रशम्याशु ततो चान्तदंधे प्रभुः॥ २३॥ अन्तर्हिते दिनकरे ऋषयः सवितुः प्रभाम्। महाभागास्तेपिरे समाश्चित्य संयतन्नताः ॥ २४ ॥ दैतेयोऽपि प्रभां दष्टा दिननाथस्य सुत्रताः। भयाद भीति च तेभ्यो वै चक्रे साक्षाद्यमीपमः ॥ २५ ॥ ततः प्रभृति वै विप्रा देवो भूमण्डले स्थितः। वटशिलामध्ये वडादित्येति गीयते ॥ २६॥ इत्येत्तत् कथितं विप्रा वडादित्यो यथा भृवि। निपत्य पूज्यते विप्रैः सर्वारिष्टप्रणाशंकः॥ २७॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे वडादित्यमाहात्म्यं नामाष्ट्रीत्रकोऽध्यायः ॥ ३८ ॥

पुष्ठिपका--- ने3 °त्रिशतितमो° (→°त्रिशो°); ने1 इति श्री स्कल्द मा० वडादित्यमाहा-तम्य नामाष्ट्रत्रिशतितमोध्यायः ॥

१८. -b) ने1 हेतुना: (हेतुना). -c) ने1 प्रदूत (→प्रवृत). १९. -b) ने1 कालनेमें भया दुतान्. २०. -c) ने1 प्रहूयाम: (→प्रहूयाम:). २१. -d) ने1 वै नियब्यति (→नाश्चिय्वयित). ने3.220-23 b ⊙. २२. -e) ने1.3 विक्षेप (→विक्षेप). -f) ने2 शुभम्(→शुभाम्). २५. -a) ने1 वैत्ये योपि (→वैतेयोऽिप). -b) ने1 सुजता: (→अुन्नता:).

व्यास उवाच ।

निमज्य कौशिकीं पृण्यां दक्षिणे दिननायकम्। प्रपुज्य मुनिशादुं ला देवी कात्यायनीं व्रजेत् ॥ १ ॥ संपूज्य च महामायां दिननाथजले निमज्य मानवः सम्यक् स्वर्गलोके महोयते॥२॥ रम्भानामा सरिद्वरा । रामपादसमुद्भृता ययौ सा कौशिकोसङ्गे उत्तरद्वारवाहिनी। मानवस्तत्र सत्यलोके महीयते ॥ ३ ॥ ततस्त दक्षिणे भागे रामो नाम महागिरिः। तत्र पूण्या महादेवी शक्तिनाम्ना प्रपूज्यते॥ तां सुपुज्य महाभागाः शत्रुतो न भयं भवेत्॥ ४॥ टङ्क्षणाचलसंभता शालीनामा सरिद्वरा । नदीभिर्बहभिः पुण्या मिश्रिता मृनिसत्तमाः।। कौशिकीसङ्गमे पुण्ये सङ्गता मुनिसत्तमाः॥५॥ तयोर्मध्ये महादेवं शक्तीशं नाम वै द्विजाः। संपुज्य मानवो याति शिवलोकं सुदूर्लभम्॥६॥ तत्र पृण्या गुहायां वै महादेवी प्रपुज्यते। ततः कूम्भवतीसङ्गं शशवत् पारनं तरम्॥७॥ शशवतीसङ्गे मध्ये शेषवती शुभा। ततः तेषां सङ्गे निमज्यासु पातकात् तरते जनः॥८॥ कौशिकीशेषवत्यास्त् सङ्गमे मुनिसत्तमाः। संपुज्य शेषनागेशं शिवलोके महीयते ॥ ९ ॥ ततः पुण्या सरिच्छेषा भित्वा शेषगिरि द्विजाः। निषेव्य द्रोणपादं वै गता प्रति ॥ १०॥ मध्यभवं

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे कौिहाकीमाहात्म्यं नामैकोनच-त्वारिकोऽध्यायः ॥ ३९ ॥

 $^{\{\}cdot -a\}$ ने1 कौशिको, ने2 कौशिकां (\rightarrow कौशिकों). -c) ने2 °शादूंळ, ने3 °शादूंळं (\rightarrow °शादूंळा). $\{\cdot -b\}$ ने2 °नागा (\rightarrow °नामा). $\{\cdot -b\}$ ने1 पावो (\rightarrow रामो). -d) ने2 शतिः(\rightarrow शक्ति—). $\{\cdot -a\}$ ने1 टंकणपृष्टि°(\rightarrow टंकणाचळ'). -f) ने1 °सत्तमा(\rightarrow °सत्तमाः). $\{\cdot -d\}$ ने1 नरम्(\rightarrow तरम्). $\{\cdot -c\}$ ने1 तासां \cdot (\rightarrow तेषां). $\{\cdot -a\}$ ने1 परि° (\rightarrow सिरि°).

ऋषय ऊचुः

यः शेष इति विख्यातो पर्वतो मुनिसत्तम। तस्याख्यापय माहात्म्यं क्षेत्राणां चापि विस्तरात्॥१॥

व्यास उवाच ।

कौशिक्या वामभागे वै नाम्ना शेषगिरिः स्मतः। सिद्धगन्धर्वसेवितः ॥ २ ॥ हिमालयसमः पृण्य : तथा कान्ताभिः शुद्धाभिर्गुहाभिश्च विराजितः। उच्छितस्त्रहिनाकारः सर्वंतो दैवतोपमः ॥ ३ ॥ राजते देवकन्याभिः पजितो मुनिसत्तमाः। सिद्धपुजितम् ॥ ४॥ यमाहुस्त्रहिनप्रान्तं सर्वतः सूकरैर्महिषैर्वन्यैः शाद्र्लैश्च विराजितः। यत्र सिद्धगणाः सर्वे निवसन्ति द्विजोत्तमाः॥५॥ किन्नराञ्च तथैव च । गणगन्धर्वाः शेषनिवासं वै प्रवदन्ति मनीषिणः ॥ ६॥ तमारुह्य महाभागा जनाः स्वर्गे वसन्ति हि। तस्य कुक्षौ महाभागाः पुण्या शेषवती गुहा। तत्र शेषो महाभागः पूज्यते नागनायकैः ॥ ७ ॥ शेषं संपूज्य मनुजा यवैश्च तुलसीदलैः। प्राप्नुवन्ति हरेः स्थानं यावदाहृतसंप्लवम् ॥ ८॥ ततो देवीं महामायां दक्षिणे मुनिसत्तमाः। संपुज्य मानवो याति शिवलोकं सुदुर्लभम्॥९॥

⁸⁰

२. -b) ने1.2 °सत्तमः (ने2 °मा) (→°सत्तम). -c) ने3 तस्य ख्यापय (→तस्या• ख्यापय); ने2 माहात्स्यां (→माहात्स्यं). -d) ने3 क्षत्रणां (→क्षेत्राणां). ३. -b) ने1 गुहाभिः सुविराजितः. -c) ने1 इिच्छतस् (→उिच्चतस्). -d) ने1 देव° (→दैव°). २. -b) ने2 पूजिते (→पूजितो). -c) ने1 गुहिने (→तुहिन-) -d) ने1 सिद्धि° (→सिद्ध°). ५. -a) ने3 महिषीर् (→महिषैर्). ५. -b) ने1 स्वर्गों (→स्वर्गे). ८. -c) ने1 हरे स्थानं (→हरे: स्थानं).

ततस्तु पर्वतप्रान्ते सीता नामा सरिद्वरा। संभवा कौशिकीं पृण्यामन्विता मुनिर्सत्तमा।। १०।। महापूण्या तयोर्मध्ये पर्वतान्ते सूशोभना। अशोकवनिका नामा जनशोकविनाशिनी ॥ ११ ॥ सत्यव्रतादिभिः पुण्यैः पुण्याश्रममयी कृता। सप्तर्षीणां च पूण्यानामाश्रमैश्च विराजिता ॥ १२ ॥ कूजद्भिः पक्षिसङ्घानां निनादैः परिपूरिता। पुण्यैरशोकवक्षैश्च परिवेष्टिता ॥ १३ ॥ सर्वतः तत्र रामाश्रमं श्रत्वा ऋषीणामपि सुव्रता:। त्यक्तवा स मिथिलां रम्यां सोतया सह भार्यया ॥ १४ ॥ भात्रा सौमित्रिणा चापि ययौ सीतावनि द्विजाः। समुदिष्टो यज्ञाचार्येण घीमता ॥ १५ ॥ कौशिकेन तत्राशोकवनीं दृष्ट्वा कौशिकीजलसेविताम्। रामं विज्ञापयामास जानकी कमलेक्षणा॥१६॥

सीता उवाच।

स्थास्याम्यत्र महाबाहो भवता सह राघंव। वसन्ते पुण्यमासे वै सुपुण्ये कौशिकीजले। स्नानं चात्र विधास्यामि मयोक्तं यदि रुच्यते।। १७॥.

व्यास उवाच ।%

इति विज्ञापितो राज्ञ्या रामो राजीवलोचनः। प्रत्युवाच महाभागाः सीतां तां चारुभाषिणीम्॥ १८॥

१०. -b) ने। सरीवरा (→सरिवरा). -d) ने। सङ्गता (→अग्विता).
११. -c) ने॰ नाम (→नामा).
१२. -a) ने॰ उपपाः (ने॰ ज्या) (→पुण्यैः). -d) ने॰ आश्रमै सुविराजिता.
१३. -a) ने। कुर्जाः (→कुर्जाद्भः). -b) ने। पुरितः (→°पूरिता). -d) ने॰ अविष्ठता (→°पूरिता). -d) ने॰ अविष्ठता (→विष्ठता). +b) ने। पुरुता (→सुन्नताः). +c) ने। मिथळा (→मिथळा); ने॰ तस्यां (→रम्यां). १५. -b) ने। श्वेतावती (ने॰ जो) (→सीतावनि). १६. -a) ने॰ अवनी (→°वनी); ने॰ दृष्टा (→दृष्ट्या). -b) ने॰ अन॰ अल॰). १७. -b) ने। -a पुरुताः (→सह); ने॰ राघवा, ने॰ राघवः (→राघवा).
१३. -b0 ने। वासंतं पुण्यमासं वै. -f1 ने। रोज्यते (→रूव्यते).
१६. -a1 पुरुतके ज्यास उवाच ⊙.
१८. -d2 ने। सीतानां (→सीतां तां).

राम उवाच।

ममापि रुच्यते भद्रे सुवासः पुण्यमण्डले। वसिष्यामि प्रियार्थं ते यावत् स्नानं विधास्यसि। कुरु स्नानं महाभागे वैशाखे मासि संस्थिता॥ १९॥

व्यास उवाच ।

रामेण सा समादिष्टा साध्वी सीता तपोधना। अशोकवनिकामध्ये छायामाश्रित्य सुव्रता ॥ २०॥ प्रियेण सह रामेण स्नानं विधिवदाचरत्। वैशाखे मासि सा साध्वी सुपुण्ये कौशिकीजले ॥ २१ ॥ ततः काले व्यतीते तु सा सती मृनिसत्तमाः। समाप्य माधवं मासं ययौ मध्यावनीं शुभाम् ॥ २२ ॥ बभूव तृषिता साध्वी चन्द्रबिम्बोपमा द्विजाः। तदा रामं महाभागं तृषितास्मीत्युवाच हु॥ २३॥ तयोदितं समाकर्णं रामो भागीरथीं स्मरन् ! सीतापि कौशिकीं पृण्यां संस्मार मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ २४ ॥ संस्मृता रघुनाथेन धन्या भागीरथी सरित्। आविर्बभूव वै विप्रा तस्यैव चरणोद्भवा॥२५॥ सीतया संस्मृता पुण्या कौशिकी चापि सुव्रता। क्षणेनाविर्बंभवाश धारयाऽमृतपूर्वया ॥ २६ ॥ पीत्वाऽऽपः सुव्रता साध्वी शङ्करं लिङ्गरूपिणम् । पुजयामास विधिवदभिषेकेण सुव्रताः ॥ २७ ॥ संपूज्य शङ्करं शान्तं समाप्य माधवं प्रभुम्। रथमारुह्य रामेण सहसा वरवर्णिनी ॥ २८॥

१९, -e) ने2 स्नान $-(\rightarrow$ स्तानं). -f) ने2 वैद्याखे (\rightarrow वैद्याखे). -e) ने2 स्मानं. -e) ने1 (ब्रेश, ने2 प्रियता (\rightarrow प्रियेण). -b) ने1.3 °बर्स्-e(\rightarrow 9 स्त्रा, -e) ने1 वैद्याखे (\rightarrow वैद्याखे). -e) ने3 °स्त्तमाः (\rightarrow 9 सत्तमा). -e) ने2 संनाप्य (\rightarrow 4 स्त्राप्य). -d) ने1 मध्यावनी (\rightarrow 4 स्त्राप्य). -d) ने1 सध्यावनी (\rightarrow 4 स्त्राप्य). -d) ने2 सस्ताप्य (\rightarrow 5 कोश्विकी (\rightarrow 8 होशकी (\rightarrow 8 होशकी (\rightarrow 8 होशकी (\rightarrow 8 होशकी प्रवादा. -d) ने1 स्त्राप्य (\rightarrow 9 प्रवादा (\rightarrow 9 प्रवादा (\rightarrow 9 प्रवादा (\rightarrow 9 प्रवादा); ने2 °संभवं (\rightarrow 9 पूर्वया).

ययावयोध्यां शोभाढ्यां बहप्राकारशोभिताम् । ततः प्रभृति वै विप्राः ख्याता सीतावनीति सा । देवगन्धर्वमनुजै: पुजिता मृनिसत्तमाः ॥ २९ ॥ तत्र सीतेश्वरं देवं स्थापितं सीतया शुभम्। ये प्रपश्यन्ति मनुजास्ते शोकाद् वितरन्ति हि ॥ ३० ॥ ये च सम्यक् प्रपूज्यन्ति देवं सीतेश्वरं हरम्। शिवेन सह ते विप्रा मोदन्ते नात्र संशयः ॥ ३१ ॥ ये तत्र रामधारायां निमज्य मनिसत्तमाः। पूजयन्ति शिवं शान्तं ते यान्ति परमां गतिम् ॥ ३२ ॥ तत्र सीताजले पूण्ये निमज्य मुनिसत्तमाः। ये पूजयन्ति देवेशं ते शोकाद् वितरन्ति हि ॥ ३३ ॥ अशोकपल्लवैः पुण्यैः सीतेशं यः प्रपुजयेत् । स शोकमुक्तो भूत्वेह शिवेन सह मोदते॥ ३४॥ तत्र सीतां महाभागां रामेण सह वै द्विजाः। प्रपूज्य मानवः सम्यग् विष्णुलोके महीयते ॥ ३५ ॥ तत्र सीतावनीमध्ये देवकी नाम वै सरित्। राजते शेषसंभता सर्वपापप्रणाशिनी । निमज्य मानवस्तस्यां स्वर्गलोके महीयते ॥ ३६ ॥ इत्येतत् कथितं विश्राः पर्वतानां मयाऽधना। श्रूणयाद्वा पठेद्वापि स शोकाद विप्रच्यते ॥ ३७ ॥ इति श्रीस्कंदपुराणे मानसखण्डे सीतेश्वरमाहात्म्यं नाम चन्वारिजोऽध्यायः ॥ ४० ॥

२९. -a) ने1 ययावषोष्यां शोभाढ्यां.

३२. -a) $\dot{\theta}_1$ °धाराया (→°धारायां). ३५. -a) $\dot{\theta}_2$. $\ddot{\theta}_2$. $\ddot{\theta}_3$ महाभागां ($\dot{\theta}_3$ °गाः) (→महाभागां). ३६. -a) $\dot{\theta}_2$ $\ddot{\theta}_3$ $\ddot{\theta}_3$ $\ddot{\theta}_4$ $\ddot{\theta}_3$ $\ddot{\theta}_4$ $\ddot{\theta}_3$ $\ddot{\theta}_4$ $\ddot{\theta}_4$ $\ddot{\theta}_3$ $\ddot{\theta}_4$ $\ddot{\theta}_4$

शेषस्य दक्षिणे भागे पुण्यो गर्गगिरिः स्मतः। **जिलापादपसंकीणीं** नानाधात्विराजितः॥१॥ कुजत्कोकिलसंघैश्च यत्र तत्र प्रणादितः । रजताकरसंयुक्तो राजते रजतोपमः ॥ २ ॥ गौरी पद्मा तथा मेधा सावित्री चापराजिता। तृष्टिः प्रभृतयो देव्यो राजन्ते यत्र वै द्विजाः ॥ ३॥ चित्रकः सत्यसेनश्च तथा गाग्यों महातपाः। सिद्धा विराजन्ते सत्यव्रतपरायणाः॥४॥ कान्ता कान्तिमती पुण्या वेणवाहा तथा नदी। देववाहा च भद्रा भद्रवती तथा।। ५।। सुवाहा कालभद्रा च काकभद्रा तथा नदी। सूभद्रा पुष्पभद्रा सरिच्छेष्ठा मानसी मनसा तथा॥६॥ एतास्त बहवो नद्यो यस्मिन् संभूय सुव्रताः। पूर्वंपश्चिमवाहिन्यो ग्राम्योत्तरगतास्तथा ॥ ७ ॥ विराजन्ते महानद्यो यस्मिन् पर्वतनायके। यासु स्नात्वा हि ऋषयो गताः स्वगं प्रति द्विजाः ॥ ८॥ षट् षष्टीति च विख्याता यस्मिन् वे ह्रदनायकाः। निमज्य येषु वै विप्रा विनश्यन्तेऽघकोटयः॥९॥ यजन्त् महाभागा यज्ञैः सुबहुदक्षिणेः। मा निमज्जन्तु तीर्थेषु मा कथा प्रवदन्त्वह॥१०॥ पुण्यं गर्गगिरि विप्राः समारुह्यन्तु मानवाः। यत्र गर्गो महातेजास् तपस्तेपे सुदुष्करम्॥११॥ सूपुण्यं पर्वतं मत्वा लोकानां हितकाम्यया। तस्मान् नान्यतमः पुण्यः पर्वतो मुनिसत्तमाः॥१२॥

१. -b) ने2 *रि: (→-िगरि:). **२**. -d) ने2 राजते (→राजन्ते); ने2 दिख (→िद्वजाः). **५**. -b) ने1 °मद्रा(→°वाहा). -c) ने1 देवहा चैव(→देववाहा च). **६**. -d) ने1 मानसा (→मनसा). **८**. -a) ने2 विराजते (→िवराजन्ते). **२**. -d) ने1 विनस्यंतेऽञ्च कोटयः. **११**. -a) ने1 °गिरीं(→°गिरिं). -c) ने1 गर्म्यां(→गर्गो); ने2 °तेजास् (→°तेजा).

यत्र कीटाः पतङ्गाद्याः स्वानाद्या मशकाश्च हि ।
मृताः शिवपुरं पुण्यं यान्ति वै मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ १३ ॥
यो हिमाद्रिं प्रणम्याशु संस्थितो गिरिनायकः ।
तस्य व्याख्यायनं विप्राः कथं वै कथयाम्यहस् ॥ १४ ॥
तस्य वै शिखरे पुण्ये गाग्येंशो नाम शङ्करः ।
पूज्यते देवगन्धवैर्मानवैश्च तपोधनाः ॥ १५ ॥
तत्र गर्गाश्चमाभ्यासे गार्गी नाम सरिद्वरा ।
पुण्यातोयवहा पुण्या विद्यते मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ १६ ॥
वामे तस्य महाभीमह्नदः संख्यायते द्विजाः ।
विभियों ऋषिभः पुण्यैः पूरितस्तुषिसंज्ञकः ॥ १७ ॥

ऋषय ऊचुः ।

कथं वै ऋषयो विप्र त्रयः परमधार्मिकाः । ह्रदं संपूरयामासुः के ते ख्यातास्तपोधनाः ॥ १८॥

व्यास उवाच ।

अतिः पुलस्त्यः पुलह ऋषयो गर्गपर्वतम् ।
समाजग्मुमँहाभागास्तपस्तप्तुं सुदुष्करम् ।
तत्र चित्रशिलां दृष्ट्वा रुरुद्धः पर्वतोत्तमम् ॥ १९ ॥
आरुद्धामाणा ऋषयः सूर्यरिहमप्रपीडिता ।
तृषिताश्चाभवन् विप्राः परिम्लानमुखश्चियः ॥ २० ॥
तत्र ते तृषिताः सर्वे संस्मरन् मानसं सरम् ।
स्मृतमात्रस्तु ऋषिभर्मानसो मुनिसत्तमैः ।
जलेन पूरयामास ह्रदं तं भीमसंमितम् ॥ २१ ॥
तत्र ते पूरितं दृष्ट्वा ह्रदं तं ऋषिसंज्ञतम् ।
पीत्वाऽऽपः सुचिरं स्थित्वा यर्युविप्रा यथागतम् ॥ २२ ॥
ये निमज्जन्ति मनुजाः सरे वै तृषिसंज्ञिते ।
मानसस्नानजं पुण्यं प्राप्नुवन्ति न संशयः ॥ २३ ॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे गर्गपर्वतमाहात्म्ये एकचत्वारिकोऽध्यायः ॥ ४१ ॥

१३. -a) ने1 कीट (→कीटाः). १६. -a) ने1 तत्र गाग्यिक्षमादुत्था. १७. -a) ने1 तत्र गाग्यिक्षमादुत्था. १७. -a) ने1 तत्रया (→तस्य). -c) ने1 पृष्यः (→पृष्यैः). -d) ने2 पूष्पितो सतनायकः. १८. -b) ने1.2 °धार्मिका (→°धार्मिकाः). १९. -c) ने1 °धार्यं (→°धित्यं). -f) ने2 कुरङ्ग (→ध्हुः). २०. -b) ने2 °प्रपीडितः (→°प्रपीडिता). -d) ने1 °मुष° (→°मुख°).

ऋषय ऊचुः ।

सर्वतीर्थाधिकं पुण्यं सर्वदानाधिकं तथा। प्राप्यते यत्र विप्रषें तत्तीर्थं वद विस्तरात्॥१॥

व्यास उवाच ।

सर्वतीर्थोत्तमं तीर्थं सर्वक्षेत्रोत्तमं तथा। श्युष्वन्तु मुनिशार्द्वला मया सम्यगुदाहृत**म्** ॥२॥ क्षेत्रं भद्रवरं नाम सर्वपापप्रणाशनम्। सिद्धगन्धर्वैर्गन्धर्वीभिस्तथैव च ॥ ३ ॥ सेवितं यं स्मृत्वा मुनिशादू ला ब्रह्महत्यादिकोटयः। प्रद्रवन्ति न सन्देहः क्षेत्रं भद्रवटस्य हि॥४॥ यत्फलं कपिलादानानुमाघस्नानाञ्च यत्फलम्। चन्द्रसूर्यंग्रहे विप्रा यत्फलं क्रुरपुष्करे॥५॥ तत्फलं चातिपुण्ये वै क्षेत्रे भद्रवटाह्वये। प्राप्यते मुनिशादू लाः सत्यं सत्यं मयोदितम् ॥ ६॥ ग्याश्राद्धेन यत् पुण्यं काशीवासाच्च यत् फलम्। यत्फलं मानसक्षेत्रे मज्जनान् मुनिसत्तमाः॥७॥ पूजनाच्छंकरस्य च । केदारोदकपानाच यत्फलं श्राप्यते विप्रास्तत्तद् भद्रवटे स्मृतम् ॥ ८॥ क्षेत्रं भद्रवटं प्राप्य ये द्विजा लोभमोहिताः। प्रतिगृह्णिन्त वै विप्रास्ते यान्ति नरकं प्रति॥९॥ भद्रवटो नाम वटः संपूज्यते द्विजाः। तस्मान्नान्यतमं क्षेत्रं प्रपश्यामि महीतले ॥ १० ॥ यस्य छायां समाश्रित्य देवदेवो जनादंनः। सुष्वाप मुनिशादू लास्तस्मात् कोन्यतमोऽधिकः ॥ ११ ॥

४२

१. -b) ने1 °दानाधिकस् (\rightarrow °दानाधिकम्). ३. -d) ने2 गन्वर्वोभिस् (\rightarrow गंघर्भी-भिस्). ६. -a) ने2 चार्प (\rightarrow चार्ति). -d) ने1 मधोदितम् (\rightarrow मयोदितम्). 9. -d) ने1 °सत्तमः (\rightarrow °सत्तमः). ९. -a) ने1 क्षेत्र $-(\rightarrow$ क्षेत्रं); ने1 °वटे (\rightarrow °वटं). ११. -a) ने2 छाया (\rightarrow छायां).

यस्मिन् क्षेत्रे महापुण्या शिला देवविनिर्मिता। धन्या चित्रशिला नाम महेन्द्राद्यैः सुसेविता॥१२॥ यस्मिन् ब्रह्मा च विष्णुख महादेवस्तथैव च। स्वशक्तिभिश्च वै विप्रा विराजन्ते न संशयः॥१३॥

ऋषय ऊचुः ।

कथं चित्रशिला पुण्या केन मर्त्ये प्रकाशिता। कथयस्व समासेन सर्वं ते विदितं प्रभो॥१४॥

व्यास उवाच ।

पुरा कृतयुगस्यादौ क्षेत्रे भद्रवटाह्नये। पुष्पभद्राजले शुद्धे निमज्य मुनिसत्तमाः॥ १५॥ मौनी तपस्वी संशितव्रतः। सूतपा नाम वे वटछायां समाश्रित्य तपस्तेपे स्दूष्करम् ॥ १६ ॥ ऊद्ध्वंवाहर्महातेजाः शीर्णपर्णानिलाशनः । त्रिगुणं द्वादशाब्दं वै तपस्तेपे सुदुष्करम् ॥ १७॥ ततः काले व्यतोते तु ब्रह्म विष्णुशिवादयः। मुनेरनुग्रहार्थाय ययुर्भद्रवट द्विजाः ॥ १८ ॥ तत्र ते तं द्विजं मौनिं दृष्ट्वा चित्रशिलां तथा। चित्रधात्समानाभां रचितां विश्वकर्मणा । पूष्पभद्रासरिन्मध्ये राजन्तीं स्वर्णसंमिताम् ॥ १९॥ ते तस्यां तस्यूर्वे विप्रा ब्रह्मविष्णुमहेश्वराः। ऋषेरनुग्रहार्थाय लोकानां हितकाम्यया ॥ २० ॥ उवाच तम्षि विप्रा विष्णुर्बह्मभवान्वितः। त्रैलोक्यहितकर्तारं वचनं समुवाच ह ॥ २१ ॥

विष्णुरुवाच ।

धन्योऽसि ऋषिशाद्वंल येनाहं तोषितस्त्वया। ध्यानं संत्यज्य मां पश्य हितं ते करवाम्यहम्॥ २२॥

१२. -c) ने2. : नामा (\rightarrow नाम). १४. -b) ने2 मत्यों (\rightarrow मत्यों). १५. -c) ने1 पुष्पे (\rightarrow शुद्धे). १८. -b) ने1.2 ब्रह्मा (\rightarrow ब्रह्म).

इति विष्णोगिरं श्रुत्वा मेघगम्भीरनादितम् । कोऽनिहन्ताधृन। वाचं संभाव्य प्रदद्शं ह ॥ २३ ॥ ततो दद्शं वैकुण्ठं शङ्क्षचक्रगदाधरम् । श्रीवत्साङ्कं चतुर्बाहुं वनमालाविराजितम् ॥ २४ ॥ सहस्रभानुसंकादां दिव्यद्युतिविराजितम् । चोपविष्टं शिलापृष्ठे सह ब्रह्मभवादिभिः ॥ २५ ॥

चिह्नानुमेयं वैकुण्ठं कृष्णं मत्वा श्रियः पतिम् । ननाम दण्डवद् भूमौ किञ्चिन्नोवाच स वती ॥ २६ ॥

प्रणामानन्तरं मौनी तुष्टाव मनसा हरिम् । स मौनि तमृषि ज्ञात्वा हरिः संसारभाववित् । अनुजग्राह वे विप्रा विश्वकर्ता सतां गतिः ॥ २७ ॥

अधिरोप्य विमानाग्रे मौनि स⁻यद्गतं ऋषिम् । सह तेन तदा देवो ब्रह्मणा राङ्करेण च । ययौ वेकुण्ठभवनं वेकुण्ठो मुनिसत्तम ॥ २८ ॥

सुतपस्याश्रमे पुण्ये सा शिला त्वष्टृनिर्मिता । पुष्पभद्रा सरिन्मध्ये चित्रा धातुमयी यथा । पुज्यते देवगन्धर्वैः किमुतान्यैर्महर्षिभिः ॥ २९ ॥

ये पूजयन्ति मनुजाश्चित्रां चित्रशिलां द्विजाः। तेषां वैकुण्ठभवनान् नास्तीह पुनरागमः॥३०॥

दुर्लभं मानुषं जन्म मानुषे मुनिसत्तमाः। सुदुर्लभतरं तत्र शिलासंदर्शनं शुभम्।। ३१॥ तत्रापि दुर्लभं मन्ये पृष्पभद्रासरिज्जले। मज्जनं मुनिशार्द्गला ब्रह्महत्याविनाशनम्।। ३२॥

२३. -b) ने1 °नाविताम् (\rightarrow °नावितम्). -c) ने2 वाच (\rightarrow वाचं). २६. -a) चिह्नानुमेयवैकुण्ं. -d) ने1 प्रती (\rightarrow वती). २७. -f) ने3 गतिम् (\rightarrow गितः). २८. -f) ने1.3 °सत्तमाः (\rightarrow °सत्तम). २८. -f) ने1.3 °सत्तमाः (\rightarrow °सत्तम). ३१. -a) ने1 दुर्लभ-(\rightarrow दुर्लभं). -b) ने1.2 °सत्तमा(\rightarrow °सत्तमाः).

ते धन्याः मानवाः लोके राष्ट्री स्वर्ताः । येः स्नानं पुष्पभद्रायाः जले पुण्यप्रदे द्विजाः ॥ २३ ॥ निमज्य पुष्पभद्रायाः जले येः पूज्यते शिला । ते मातुर्ज्ञेटरं विद्रा न पश्यिन्त पुनः पुनः॥ २४ ॥ दक्षिणे पुष्पभद्रायाः पुण्यं भद्रवटं हि ये । प्रपश्यिन्त महाभागास्ते यान्ति परमां गतिम्॥ २५ ॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे भद्रवटमाहात्म्ये द्विचत्वारिशोऽध्यायः ॥ ४२ ॥

२२. -a) ने1 मानवे (→मानवा). -b) ने2 मातुष्णंहरवासिनः, ने1. ३४b-३५a ⊙,

अत्रैवोदाहरन्तीममितिहामं पुरातनम् ।
गर्गेण मुनिना गीतं व्याधाय परिपृच्छते ॥ १ ॥
व्याधः किचन् महारण्ये खर्रादेशसमुद्भवः ।
मृगयां व्यचरत् पापो देशे व्याधसहायवान् ॥ २ ॥
वराहांश्च्य रुख्यापि एणां चापि सुदुर्मतिः ।
जघान विपिने घोरे तथान्यानिष वे मृगान् ॥ ३ ॥
स कदाचित् तपस्यन्तं गर्गं पत्र्य तपोधनाः ।
ध्यायमानं जगन्नाथं प्रभविष्णुं महेश्वरस् ॥ ४ ॥
तं दृष्ट्वा सोऽतिपापो वे पुण्यां ज्ञानर्रति गतः ।
अहो नैष्ठ्यंकम्मीऽयं प्राणिनां हिसनं वदन् ॥ ५ ॥
इति पुण्यमतं ज्ञात्वा स व्याधो मुनिसत्तमाः ।
प्रणम्य स यथान्यायं गर्गं संपृष्टवान् तदा ॥ ६ ॥

व्यास उवाच ।

मुने हिंसारतानां हि मानवानां दुरात्मनाम् । कस्मिन् क्षेत्रे गतिः पुण्या विद्यते तद्वदस्व माम् ॥ ७ ॥

गर्ग उवाच ।

अपि क्षेत्रशतं दृष्टा ये हिंसानिरता जनाः। ते न शुद्धयन्ति वै व्याध वटक्षेत्रमदृश्य हि॥८॥ तावत् पापानि सर्वाणि देहल्पनानि सन्ति वै। यावद् भद्रवटं क्षेत्रं न पश्यति हि पातकी॥९॥

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दृष्ट्वा भद्रवटं क्षेत्रं तथा चित्रशिलां शुभाम्। विलीयन्ते ह पापानि हिमवद् भास्करोदये॥१०॥

व्यास उवाच ।

इति श्रुत्वा महाव्याधस्त्यक्त्वा च सशरं धनुः । सुर्निविष्णमना भूत्वा पुनर्गर्गमुवाच ह ॥ ११ ॥

व्याध उवाच ।

कुत्र व्याख्यायते विप्र त्वया भद्रवटः शुभः। कुत्र सा पुण्यनिचया शिला चित्रशिला स्मृता॥१२॥

गर्ग उवाच ।

शुद्धे हिमालयप्रान्ते पुण्यो गर्गगिरिः स्मृतः। तत्र गर्गाश्रमो व्याध विद्यते सिद्धसेवितः ॥ १३॥ तत्र गर्गाश्रमाद भता गार्गी नामा नदी स्मृता। वामे तस्या महाभीमो पुण्यो भीमह्नदः स्मृतः ॥ १४॥ तस्मात् पुण्यात् सरिच्छेष्ठा पुष्पभद्रा महानदी । संभुता वै महाव्याध तपस्वीभिनिषेविता॥ १५॥ तत्रैव सरितोत्तमा । पर्वतोद्देशे सूभद्रा बभव सिद्धगन्धर्वैः पुजिता व्याधनायक ॥ १६॥ संगममध्ये वै चिताभस्मविभूषणः। जार्गात शङ्करो व्याध सिद्धगन्धर्वसेवितः॥१७॥ तत्र चित्रशिला नाम तयोर्वे सङ्गमाद्वहिः। देवगन्धर्वमनुजैः पूजिता व्याधनायक । सेविता ऋषिभिः पुण्यैः तपोभिर्वीतकल्मषैः॥१८॥ ब्रह्मविष्णमहेशाद्यास्त्रयो देवा वसन्ति हि। यस्यां देविषपुज्यायां सेवितायां सरिज्जलैः॥१९॥

१०. -a) ने1 °वट-(→°वटं). -b) ने1 °िशला (→°िशलां). **११.** -a) ने1 **११.** -b) ने1 बनु (→धनुः). **१३.** -d) ने1 विषते (→िवदाते). **१४.** -a) ने1 गाग्याश्रमाद् (→गर्गाश्रमाद्). -d) ने1 शुभः (→स्मृतः). **१५.** -a) ने1 सरिच्छेषा (→सरिच्छेषा). **१६.** -c) ने2 °गन्धर्वः (→°गन्धर्वः). **१९.** -c) ने2 °पूज्यानां (→°पूज्यायां).

तां दृष्ट्वा पापिनो घोरा विलिप्ताः पापकोटिभिः। क्षणेनैव विशुद्धचन्ति सत्यं ते कथितं मया॥ २०॥ अणुमात्रमपि स्नातं पुष्पभद्वा सरिष्जले। तस्मिन् क्षेत्रे प्रकुरुते भस्मसादघकोटयः॥ २१॥ दिक्षणे पुष्पभद्वायाः पुण्यं भद्रवटं स्मृतम्। तं दृष्ट्वा मानवो याति विष्णुलोकं सुदुलंभम्॥ २२॥ तिच्छला वटयोर्मंध्ये क्षेत्रं भद्रवटं स्मृतम्। त्रिण्णाश्रमेव्यांध सेवितं सुमनोहरम्॥ २३॥ प्रविशन्नेव ते पापं तस्मिन् क्षेत्रे प्रणव्यति। गच्छ त्वं तत्र वै व्याध त्यज हिंसां मलप्रदाम्॥ २४॥

व्यास उवाच ।

इति गर्गस्य वचनं श्रुत्वा व्याधो महामनाः ।
प्रणम्य तमृषिश्रेष्ठं ययौ भद्रवटं शुभस् ॥ २५ ॥
स्नात्वा भीमह्रदे पृण्ये सिरतो [:] सङ्गमे तथा ।
तथैव पृष्पभद्राया जले स्नात्वा यथाविधि ॥ २६ ॥
स शिलां पूजयामास पूर्णमञ्दत्रयं द्विजाः ।
तथा भद्रवटं पृण्यं गन्धपुष्पाक्षतैर्जलैः ।
पूजयामास विधिवत् स व्याधो मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ २७ ॥
ततो वर्षत्रयान्ते वै स व्याधः स्वगृहं ययौ ।
पातकैर्बद्धभिर्मृक्तो निर्ममो निरहङ्कृतः ॥ २८ ॥
बुभुजे विषयान् भोगानीजे यज्ञान् 'सुदक्षिणान् ।
ततः कालेन स व्याधो दैवात् पञ्चत्वमासवान् ॥ २९ ॥
मृतो विमानमारुह्य देवैः संप्रेषितं शुभम् ।
सत्यलोकं ययौ व्याधः पुण्येनोपाजितेन वै ॥ ३० ॥
व्याधास्यान्वितां विप्राः कथां भद्रवटस्य वे ।
यः पठेच्छुणुयाद् वापि सत्यलोके महीयते ॥ ३१ ॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे भद्रवटमाहात्म्यं नाम श्रयश्रत्वारिशोऽध्यायः ॥ ४२ ॥

२०. -a) ने $_{8}$ नरा (\rightarrow हृष्ट्रा); ने $_{3}$ दृष्ट्रा (\rightarrow घोरा). २१. -a) ने $_{1}$ स्तानं (\rightarrow स्तानं). -c) ने $_{1}$ अस्मन् (\rightarrow तिस्मन्). २२. -d) ने $_{2}$ °लोक $-(\rightarrow$ °लोकं). २५. -b) ने $_{1}$ ° मब्दं (\rightarrow ° प्रवं). -c) ने $_{1}$ दिखा (\rightarrow दिखाः). -c) ने $_{2}$ °वरं (\rightarrow °वरं). -d) ने $_{1}$, $_{2}$ गंघ (ने $_{2}$ °घा) पृष्पाकृतैजेले (ने $_{2}$ °जीलैंः). २९. -b) ने $_{1}$ सुवक्षिणां (\rightarrow सुवक्षिणान्).

ऋषय ऊचुः ।

तीर्थानां पुष्पभद्राया माहात्म्यं मुनिसत्तमः। श्रोतुमिच्छाम विप्रषे त्वत्तः सत्यवती सुतात्॥१॥

व्यास उवाच ।

तत्र चित्रह्नदे स्नात्वा पुष्पभद्राप्रपूरिते। मानवो देवभवनं प्रयाति मुनिसत्तमाः॥२॥ अधोभागे महत्तीर्थं शेषनागाह्नयं स्मृतम्। तत्र स्नात्वा च मनुजो देवलोके महीयते॥३॥ ततस्तु शेषभद्रायाः संगमोऽस्ति तपोधनाः। तत्र पिण्डप्रदानेन पित्न संतारयेन नरः॥४॥ ततस्त् चन्द्रभद्रायाः सङ्गमोऽस्ति तपोधनाः। तत्र स्नात्वा च मनुजो देवलोके महीयते॥५॥ ततस्तु वेणुभद्राया सङ्गमोऽस्ति तपोधनाः। तत्र स्नात्वा च मनुजः स्वगंलोके महीयते॥६॥ वामे तत्र महादेवी चण्डिका परमेश्वरी। पुज्यते मुनिशार्द्वला देवगन्धर्वपूजिता।। ७॥ ततोर्द्धभागे वै विप्राः शिलायां देवपूजितम्। सुभद्रासङ्गमं पुण्यं बिद्यते ऋषिसेवितम्। तत्र रमशाननिलयो हरः संपूज्यते द्विजाः ॥ ८ ॥ निमज्य विधिवत् तत्र शङ्करं यस्तु पूजयेत्। शिवलोकमवाष्नोति शिवेन सह मोदते॥ ९॥ ततः कमलभद्रायाः संगमस्ति तपोधनाः। तत्र स्नात्वा च मनुजः शिव्वत् पूज्यते भूवि ॥ १० ॥

४४

२. -a) ने1 चि*ह्रदे (→नित्रह्रदे). ६. -b) ने2 सङ्गमेऽस्ति (→सङ्गमोऽस्ति).

ततोर्ढं पुष्पभद्रायां गार्गीसंगमनं स्मृतम् । तत्र स्नात्वा च मनुजो जायते शिववरूभः ॥ ११ ॥ मूले तस्या महापुण्यो हृदः संख्यायते द्विजाः । भीमो नाम महापुण्यः सुरगन्धवंसेवितः ॥ १२ ॥ तत्र भीमेश्वरो नाम हरः संपूज्यते द्विजाः । भीमेशं पूज्य मनुजो जायते शिववरूभः ॥ १३ ॥

यत्र पुण्या महाभागाः ख्याताः सप्त ह्रदाः शुभाः । तत्र भीमह्रदः पुण्यः ख्यायते मुनिसत्तमाः ॥ १४ ॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे पुष्पभद्रातीर्थमाहात्म्यं नाम चतुश्चत्वारिकोध्यायः ॥ ४४ ॥

११. -a) ने $_3$ °भद्राया (\rightarrow भद्रायां). -b) ने $_3$ गर्गों° (\rightarrow गार्गी°). -c) ने $_1$ मनुजा (\rightarrow मनुजो). १२. -c) ने $_1$ मनुजा (\rightarrow मनुजो).

ऋषय ऊचुः ।

कुत्र ते मुनिशादूरैला पुण्याः सप्त ह्रदाः स्मृताः । कस्माद् भोमह्रदः पुण्यः स्थायते मुनिसत्तम ॥१॥ ह्रदानां नामधेयं च पुण्यं चापि तपोधन । समुत्पत्तिं च विधिवच्होगुनिच्छानहे वयम् ॥२॥

व्यास उवाच।

श्रुण्वतां(?) मुनिशाद्रं ला ह्रदानां नामसंज्ञितस् । यैधंन्येर्बंहुभिः पुण्याः कृता मानसरोपमाः ॥ ३ ॥ प्रथमं तृषिसंज्ञो वै ततो भोमह्रदः स्मृतः । ततः सनत्कुमारेण किल्पतो ह्रदनायकः ॥ ४ ॥ नवक्रोशान् सुविस्तोणीं ब्रह्मर्षिणणसेवितः । ततो नलसरः पुण्यो दमयन्त्यास्ततः परस् ॥ ५ ॥ ततो रामह्रदः ख्यातस्ततः सीतासरः स्मृतः । तिषां मध्ये महाभागाः पुण्यो भीमह्रदः स्मृतः । सिद्धविद्याधरगणैः सेवितः सरनायकः ॥ ६ ॥ यत्र भीमेश्वरं देवं स पाण्डुतनयो बली । समाराध्याञ्जलीदानात् पूर्यामास तं ह्रदम् ॥ ७ ॥

ऋषय ऊचुः ।

कथं भीमो महाभाग शिवमाराधयत् प्रभुम् । कस्मात् तत्राञ्जिलि पुण्यं चिक्षेप पाण्डुनन्दनः ॥ ८॥

४५

१. -b) ने। पुण्याः समह्रदा शुभाः २. -b) ने। वाप-(\rightarrow वापि). ४ c- ξ b ने2. \odot (दृ. सं.) ४. -d) ने3 °नायका (\rightarrow °नायकः). ५. -b) ने3 °सेवितं (\rightarrow °सेवितः). -c) ने3 °सरं (\rightarrow °सरः). ξ . -a) ने3 °सरः (\rightarrow °हदः). ७.-d) ने2 ह्रदः (\rightarrow हदः). ८. -c) ने1 पुण्या (?) (\rightarrow पुण्यं).

एकदा बलवान भीम एकाकी हिमपर्वतम्। जगाम स गदाहस्तः पाकशासनविक्रमः ॥ ९ ॥ व्रजंश्चित्रशिलां दृष्ट्वा संपूज्य च महामतिः। परिक्रम्य वटं भीमो हरोह सुमहागिरिम्॥ १०॥ तमारुहं(ढं(?)) तमेकाकीं कर्याकार कि । गदाहस्तं पराकान्तं भीमं भीमपराक्रमम् ॥ ११ ॥ भीम भीम महाभाग शिवमाराध्य प्रभम्। आराध्याञ्जलिदानेन शिवत्वं समुवाप्नुहि। स्थापयस्व स्वकीति वै युगमेकं न संशयः ॥ १२ ॥ उपश्चके महादेवं स पाण्डुतनयो वली। संस्थाप्य भूमी देवेशं शंकरं लोकशङ्करम्।। १३॥ गन्धपूष्पाक्षतैर्माल्यैवंस्त्रैश्च विविधैरपि । .. नैवद्येन सूतोष्य च॥१४॥ संपुष्य देवदेवेशं गदया पर्वतं :भित्वा निष्कास्य स मृदं द्विजाः। जलं समानयामास गाञ्जेयं मुनिसत्तमाः॥ १५॥ ततः प्रक्रम्य देवेशं भीमो भीमपराक्रमः। स्वकीति स्थापयद् भूमी गाङ्गियजलपूरिताम्॥१६॥ ददी जलाञ्जलि भीमो महादेवाय शृलिने। ततो विसर्जयामास शङ्करं पाण्डुनन्दनः। प्रणम्य दण्डवद्भूमौ भीमः स्वस्थमना अभूत्।। १७।। ततोञ्जलिप्रदानेन भीमस्य च महात्मनः। क्षणाज्जलचराणां च स बभूव गृहं द्विजाः॥ १८॥

अतः परं ने। अधिकम्—

व्यास उवाच । "वागुवतमशरीरिण्याः श्रुत्वा भीमो महामित । सिन्नधाय गदां भूमौ नमस्कृत्वा महेस्वरम् ॥" १३. -c) ने $_2$ देवेशे (\rightarrow देवेशं). १४. -d) ने $_1$ सुतोब्य (\rightarrow सुतोध्य). १६. -d) ने $_1$ °पूरितान्, ने $_2$ °पूरितम् (\rightarrow °पूरिताम्). १८. -c) ने $_1$ रुझणाज् (\rightarrow धणाज्).

१०. -c) ने $_2$ पदं (→बटं). -d) ने $_3$ स महा o ($→सुमहा<math>^o$). ११. -d) ने $_2$ भीमें(→भीमं). १२. -f) ने $_2$ युगे वास्तिन् महेश्वररम्, ने $_3$ युगे चस्मिन् महेश्वरिं.

नकैस्तिमिङ्गिलस(झ?) षादिभिः पूर्णभूतं कल्लोलक्षोभचपल वरटाभिः पूर्णम् । दृष्ट्वा ह्रदं त्रिपुरनायकनायिकाभिः

संपूज्य तुष्टिमगमत् किमुत सुसिद्धाः ।। १९ ॥ संप्जितं भीमं पुनस्तं वागुवाच ह। गच्छ नागाह्वयं भीम श्रेयस्त्वं समुवाप्नुहि ॥ २० ॥ वागुक्तं वचनं श्रुत्वा भीमस्तुष्टमना द्विजाः। ययौ नागाह्वयं प्रीतो गदाहस्तो महाबलः॥ २१॥ इत्येतत् कथितं विप्रा यथा भीमह्नदो वरः। मया व्याख्यायितः सम्यक् लोकानां हितकाम्यया ॥ २२ ॥ ये स्नानं मुनिशाद्र्लाः कुर्वन्ति भीमसंज्ञिते। क्रीडन्ति देवभवने यावदाहृतसंप्लवम् ॥ २३ ॥ गंगास्नानसमं पुण्यं स्नात्वा भीमह्रदे शभे। प्राप्नोति मानवः सम्यग् नात्र कार्या विचारणा ॥ २४॥ भोमेश्वरं देवं संपूज्य मुनिसत्तमाः। मनोभिलिषतां सिद्धि ददाति परमेश्वरः॥ २५॥ तत्रैव बहवो विशा गुहाः सन्ति सुशोभनाः। तासु सिद्धैर्महादेवी प्ज्यते नात्र संशयः॥ २६॥

इति श्रीस्कन्दपुराणे मानसखण्डे भीमह्रदमाहात्म्यं नाम पञ्चनत्वारिशोऽध्यायः ॥ ४५ ॥

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१९. -a) ने। नक्रस् (→नक्रैस्). -c) ने। त्रिवश° (→िवपुर°). -f) ने। िक्रमुते (→िक्रमुत). २०. -a) ने२ भीमें (→भीमं). २१. -b) ने। िद्धजा (→िद्धजाः) -d) ने२ °हस्तों (→°हस्तों); ने। °बळ (→°बळः). २३. -c) ने। °मुवने (→°भवने).

[ॅ]हस्ता (→ॅहस्ता); नं। ॅबल (→ॅबलः). २३. -c) ने। $^{\circ}$ भुवने (→ॅभवने). २५. -c) ने। $^{\circ}$ लखितां (→ॅलिखतां). -d) ने। परमेश्वरम् (→परमेश्वरः). २६. -b) ने। प्रहाः (→गृहाः).

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